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GRAMMAR

OF THE

GERMAN LANGUAGE.

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by J. B. G. VOGEL.

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A

GRAMMAR

OF THE

GERMAN LANGUAGE,

BY

GEORGE HENRY NOEHDEN,

Ph. D. L. L. D.

OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM,

F.R.S. F.A.S. M.A.S. F.L.S. H.S. COR. SOC. SCIENT. GÖTTING. LATIN. JEN. MIN. JEN. NAT. LIPS. BEROL. &c.

THE SIXTH EDITION.

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1830.

ADVERTISEMENT

TO

THE FIFTH EDITION.

The learned and worthy Author of this Grammar, who died on the 14th of March 1826, had not only prepared the present edition, but exerted himself in seeing it through the press, all but the few concluding sheets. By a reference to the preceding edition, the fifth will be found greatly improved and augmented, and will, it is hoped, support the high character, which *Noehden's German Grammar* has for six and twenty years deservedly enjoyed in this country, of being at once the most complete and the most philosophical Introduction to the knowledge of the German Language, for the use of the Englishmen, hitherto published. The erudition of the Author supplied him with appropriate elucidations from

other Languages which cannot but be acceptable to the Student, as the Grammatical Structure of one Language is best impressed on the memory in proportion to its being shewn to be analogous to that of another.

H.

London, April, 1826.

ADVERTISEMENT

TO

THE SIXTH EDITION.

Owing to the illness of the late Author during the printing of the 5th edition of this work the accuracy of the latter sheets was not attended to. They have, however, been properly corrected in this new edition.

V.

Sept. 1830.

INTRODUCTION.

CONCERNING THE LANGUAGE WHICH IS THE SUBJECT OF THIS GRAMMAR.

THE Language, which this Grammar proposes to teach, was originally a dialect, peculiar to a small district in Germany, and is to this day distinguished, from the other modes of speech, by the name of HIGH GERMAN. It began first to rise into notice, at the time of the Reformation; but, since the sixteenth century, it has been cultivated in different provinces, and ultimately adopted, as their common tongue, by all. It is become the language of literature, and of general communication, whereas the remaining idioms are confined to the colloquial intercourse of their own provinces, and even there, in a considerable degree, excluded from the use of the well-educated and higher classes. It is the language of the whole nation, and must, by preference, be understood, when *The German* is mentioned.

It is my design, in the following pages, briefly to exhibit the history of this dialect, and to say a few words on its nature and properties.

The province, formerly known by the name of the Electorate of Saxony, was the place that gave it birth. That part of Germany had, at an early period, been inhabited by people of Slavonick descent*; who were, in the tenth century, mixed with a colony of Germans from Franconia†, established among them. The Franconians eventually became the masters of the country, and as such introduced their language. But it experienced some change, by being communicated to the prior inhabitants. Their tongue, as that of other Slavonick tribes, was probably soft and harmonious; and would, to a certain

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Before we proceed farther in our remarks, it will be proper to advert to the name which was given to this idiom, in contradistinction to the others. It is by that appellation discriminated from the Low German, which is the native language of the northern parts of Germany.*

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in its present state, we must say, that it does not exclusively belong to any particular province, or district, but is the property, and lawful possession of the whole nation*. It has, since it is generally come into use, received improvements from all quarters, and is no longer to be considered in the light, in which it first appeared. Hence it evidently follows that, if there be a difference, between the several provinces, respecting any particular point, in the mode of speaking, it should be adjusted, not according to the peculiar usage of one or the other, but upon general principles, which apply to language, on philosophick and impartial grounds. By this observation we ought to be guided, when we determine the question, in which parts the best German, that is to say, the best High German, is to be met with. It will not satisfy us, after the foregoing considerations, to be told, that we must look for example and authority to the practice of that district, from which it derived its origin. This cannot be logically admitted: but whatever, in case of doubt, may be decided by the rules and analogy of general grammar, must inevitably be acknowledged as paramount to the influence of any local custom; and

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* In this declaration I am supported by the eminent authority of Mr. Adelung, whom I have quoted, at length, in the first edition, page 12. See his system of the German Language (Lehrgebäude der deutschen Sprache). Vol. 1. p. 84, 85 and 89. To which may be added his statements, in his *Introduction to German Orthography.* ection 1, chap. 3, from page 45 to 62.

that province ought certainly to be thought to possess the German in its greatest perfection and purity, which the least deviates from these rules, and this analogy.

It was, for a long time, taken for granted that the High German was best spoken in that part of the country, commonly called Upper Saxony, and, nominally, at the towns of Meissen and Dresden. And that must have been true, at its origin and first progress. But as soon as the language was familiarized to the other provinces, there arose a possibility that it might, in its advancement, meet with a set of people, out of its native district, who from particular circumstances, would be able to do it more justice than those, to whom it owed its primary existence. Such a chance was afforded it among the inhabitants of Lower Saxony: who, from the favourable disposition of their organs of speech, were better qualified to follow the dictates of general rule and analogy, than any of their neighbours. It would then of necessity happen, that if there were instances in which the Upper Saxon violated the rules of general analogy, when the Lower Saxons were capable of observing them, the latter must in those instances, have the preference. On the other hand, it is also obvious that, when the Upper Saxons are guilty of deviations from the genuine standard of pronunciation, the Lower Saxons may, reciprocally, have their peculiarities, likewise in opposition to the law prescribed. That law is, that the pronunciation should be brought as near to the orthography of the language, as it is possible, that the sounds should correspond with the letters, and that the farther any province recedes from that line, the more distant it is from the claim of a good pronunciation.

authority of one province, as, after its example, to establish a mode of speaking, which is contrary to the general rule, and affords, by its intrinsick merit, no compensation for such an irregularity. It is the foreigner who should be consulted on this point: but it will be difficult to persuade him (I allude to such foreigners as belong to the most enlightened nations of Europe) that the hissing sound of *Sch* (English *Sh*) is a desirable substitute for that of the simple *S*. It is a peculiarity, which has been retained from the Upper German, and ought to be dismissed from the general language. The Lower Saxons are always disposed to avoid it, and it would, in this instance, certainly be unreasonable to require of them, that they should exchange their better pronunciation, for one which is decidedly worse.

3. In the third place, we may notice the want of discrimination between the diphthong *ü*, and the vowel *i*, which seems to prevail among the Upper Saxons. They pronounce both alike, namely as the *ee* of the English; but *ü* should be sounded very differently, as will be shown, when we speak of this letter.

4. Lastly, I would remark the hurried pronunciation of the prefix *ge*, in the preterite participles; where the *e* is so entirely slurred over, as if it did not exist. For example, *gelobt*, praised; *geliebt*, loved; *gelehrt*, learned, they speak *klobt*, *kliebt*, *klehrt*. This is wrong, because the vowel *e*, though it has, in this prefix, a short and somewhat obscure sound, should still be pronounced, and be made audible.

It would be foreign to the subject to touch upon other inaccuracies, which may be said to be only failings of

the vulgar.* I shall, therefore, proceed to point out the defects, with which the pronunciation of the Lower Saxons is to be charged.

I. It has a tendency to assume soft letters, in the room of hard ones, when the former are improper. Thus *D* is heard for *T*, as *Dag* for *Tag*, *Duch* for *Tuch*, &c.

2. The hissing aspiration is sometimes omitted, where, in conformity with the established orthography, it ought to be received. A Lower Saxon will be inclined to say *slagen* for *schlagen*; *sneiden* for *schneiden*, &c.

3. The third variation from the rule is perhaps the most frequent, and the most serious. It concerns the letter *G*, in the true pronunciation of which many persons are found to err. Some express it by the sound of *j*, which is like the English *y*, in the beginning of some words, such as *year*, *yoke*, *yellow*. *Gott*, God, is accordingly spoken, as if written *jott* (English *yott*); *Garten*, garden, as if *jarten* (i. e. *yarten*), &c. Others pronounce the *g* like *ch*, which is a guttural sound, as will be mentioned in its place. But the right mode of uttering the letter *g*, is that which is perceived in the English words, *god*, *garden*, *get*, *give*.

I have stated the prominent imperfections of both the Upper, and the Lower Saxon, pronunciation; and the student will be enabled to escape the offences, to which his attention hes been thus awakened. It is now necessary to balance them, with strict justice, against one another, and determine, by reasoning, which of the two

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* Of this description is, *m* substituted for *w*, as *mir wollen*, for *wir wollen*.

In drawing a comparison between the pretentions of the Upper and Lower Saxons, it is my wish to act with the utmost fairness, according to the preceding observations, I shall, therefore, enumerate the principal faults of both competitors, and carefully weigh them against one another, which will lead to such a result, as may enable the foreigner to draw his own conclusion.

The errours of the Upper Saxons are these:

1. A want of distinction between soft and hard letters; as between *B* and *P*, *D* and *T*, *G* and *K*. The hard sounds, in general, prevail. *B* is pronounced by them like *P*, *D* like *T*, and *G* like *K*. The nature of this misnomer will readily be understood by the English reader, who will recognize in it his friends, Captain Fluellen,* and Mr. Morgan.† But it is a grievous defect! *Baum* is metamorphosed into *Paum*, *Buch* into *Puch*, *Ball* into *Pall*. In the same manner, they speak *ter*, *tie*, *tas*, for *der*, *die*, *das*; *tienen* for *dienen*; *tumm* for *dumm*. Thus they substitute *K* for *G*, and say *Kott*, instead of *Gott*, *kehen*, instead of *gehen*. It may be answered, that such certainly are the popular irregularities of pronunciation, with the Upper Saxons; but that the High German should be considered according to the state, in which it exists among persons of letters, and the higher orders. This, indeed, is just; yet it does not seem to remove the objection: for that default appears to be radical, common to all, and incurable. At least,

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* See Shakspear's Henry V.

† See Roderick Random, and Peregrine Pickle.

so I have found it, in the course of my observation; and I hardly think it possible, that I should be mistaken: if I am, all that is said upon this point, falls of itself to the ground. But what is singular, it has often struck me, as if the Upper Saxons (I speak of literary, and well educated people) were incapable of perceiving, by the ear, any difference between the hard and soft sounds, though their tongue, by chance, sometimes produces the latter. In this case, I have remarked, the soft sound is, for the most part, misapplied, by being placed not where it ought to be, but perversely substituted for a hard one, as *B* for *P*, in *die Bost*, for *Post; der Blatz*, for *Platz*, &c.

2. The hissing aspiration (like the English *sh*) which is given to the letter *S*, before *p* and *t*, especially in the beginning of words, I consider as the second objection, *Stehen**, for example, is made to sound like *shtehen; sprechen** like *shprechen; Durst*‡ like *Dursht*, When the orthography of the language dictates an *S*, what can be the ground for uttering this consonant otherwise, than simply as an *S*? For that hissing aspiration a particular sign is appropriated, namely *sch;* and why should a similar confusion of the alphabetick characters be tolerated? If that aspiration is to be expressed, for what reason may the type, assigned to it, not be employed in writing? But where the orthography revolts at the *sch*, what charms can this sound possess for pronunciation? It surely has nothing to recommend it, on the score of euphony; nor can we yield so much to the preeminent

* to stand † to speak. ‡ thirst

authority of one province, as, after its example, to establish a mode of speaking, which is contrary to the general rule, and affords, by its intrinsick merit, no compensation for such an irregularity. It is the foreigner who should be consulted on this point: but it will be difficult to persuade him (I allude to such foreigners as belong to the most enlightened nations of Eürope) that the hissing sound of *Sch* (English *Sh*) is a desirable substitute for that of the simple *S*. It is a peculiarity, which has been retained from the Upper German, and ought to be dismissed from the general language. The Lower Saxons are always disposed to avoid it, and it would, in this instance, certainly be unreasonable to require of them, that they should exchange their better pronunciation, for one which is decidedly worse.

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or Ireland, will find the pronunciation, according to the Lower Saxon dialect, more congenial to his own tongue, and consequently more easy to acquire, than the pronunciation of Upper Saxony.

As to the internal value of the language, in phraseology and expression, this is not a local question. There all the provinces are upon the same level: they all draw their accomplishment from the mines of literature. Whether a man write well, or be successful in the choice of words, to express his thoughts, does not depend upon the spot where he was born and educated, but upon the proficiency he has made in letters, the degree of cultivation he has attained, and the capacity of his own mind. In writing, and in a literary point of view, the High German is every where the same. The difference does not lie between the provinces, but between individuals. The best authors furnish the store for the language, education teaches how to employ it.

The native dialects of the several provinces, in Germany, presents a curious and interesting subject to the grammatical enquirer*: neither would it be devoid of attraction for the historian, who searches into the origin

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* The author, in a tour which he made (in the summer 1815) through a great part of Germany, was much struck by the variation of the dialects. It is amusing, and instructive, for the linguist to observe, either their approximation, or deviation, and the shades of dissimilitude, by which they are marked.

The province, formerly known by the name of the Electorate of Saxony, was the place that gave it birth. That part of Germany had, at an early period, been inhabited by people of Slavonick descent*; who were, in the tenth century, mixed with a colony of Germans from Franconia†, established among them. The Franconians eventually became the masters of the country, and as such introduced their language. But it experienced some change, by being communicated to the prior inhabitants. Their tongue, as that of other Slavonick tribes, was probably soft and harmonious; and would, to a certain

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Previously to that era, every literary production, composed in the German tongue, was written in the Upper German, which was the vehicle of literature, throughout the country. The High German was the native dialect of Luther, and, by the influence of his example, it began to be raised to a competition with the former idiom, and

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THE PRINTED ALPHABET.

Characters.	Signification.	Name.
𝔄 𝔞	A a	Au*
𝔅 𝔟	B b	Bey†
ℭ 𝔠	C c	Tsey
𝔇 𝔡	D d	Dey
𝔈 𝔢	E e	Ey‡
𝔉 𝔣 ; ﬀ	F f ; ff	Ef; Ef-ef
𝔊 𝔤	G g	Gey, or Gay
ℌ 𝔥 ; 𝔠𝔥	H h ; ch	Hau ; Tsey-hau
ℑ 𝔦	I i	E
𝔍 𝔧	J j	Yot
𝔎 𝔨 ; 𝔠𝔨	K k ; ck	Kau ; Tsey-Kau
𝔏 𝔩	L l	El
𝔐 𝔪	M m	Em
𝔑 𝔫	N n	En
𝔒 𝔬	O o	O
𝔓 𝔭	P p	Pey
𝔔 𝔮	Q q	Koo
ℜ 𝔯	R r	Err
𝔖 𝔰 ; ﬁ	S s ; ff	Ess ; Ess-ess
ß ; ﬁ	sz ; st	Ess-tset ; Ess-tey
𝔗 𝔱	T t	Tey
𝔘 𝔲	U u	Oo
𝔙 𝔳	V v	Fou
𝔚 𝔴	W w	Vey§
𝔛 𝔵	X x	Iks
𝔜 𝔶	Y y	Ypsilon
𝔙 𝔷 ; ß	Z z ; tz	Tset ; Tey-tset
ä ö ü or ä ö ü	ae oe ue‖	

* Not like the broad *au*, in *caught*, *taught*, but rather like the open *au*, in *aunt*. See the pronunciation of A, in the next section.

† *ey*, in this and the following instances, to be pronounced as it is in the pronoun *they*.

‡ To sound like the acute *e* of the Germans. See the next section.

§ See the pronunciation of this letter, in the next section.

‖ Refer to the sound of these diphthongs, in the next section.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. In the printed alphabet, some letters are apt to be mistaken by beginners, and to be confounded one with another. To facilitate the discrimination, I will place them here together, and point out the difference.

𝔅 (B), and 𝔙 (V).

The latter is open in the middle, the former joined across.

𝔠 (C), and 𝔢 (E).

𝔢 (E) has a little horizontal stroke in the middle, projecting to the right, and 𝔠 (C) has not.

𝔊 (G), and 𝔖 (S).

These letters, being of rather a round form, are sometimes taken for one another, particularly the 𝔊 for the 𝔖. But 𝔖 (S) has an opening above, 𝔊 (G) is closed, and has besides a perpendicular stroke within.

𝔎 (K), 𝔑 (N), 𝔎 (R).

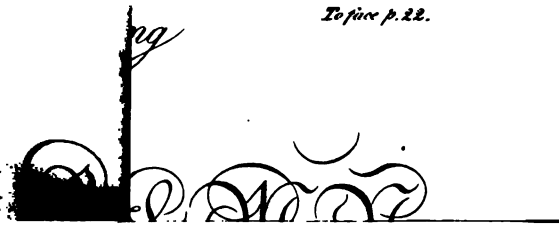
𝔎 (K) is rounded at the top, 𝔑 (N), is open in the middle, 𝔎 (R) is united about the middle.

𝔐 (M), and 𝔚 (W).

𝔐 (M) is open at the bottom, 𝔚 (W) is closed.

No. 3. is the current nana.

To face p. 22.



Of these three alphabets, both the capital and small letters are represented; and an example is added, to show them in connexion.

SECTION II.

ON ORTHOGRAPHY.

ORTHOGRAPHY has in the German, as in other languages, been exposed to variation, and change. To avoid these, and to give to the external form of the language a proper degree of consistency, the following rules should be kept in view:

First, such characters, in writing, should be used, as by their import, approach the nearest to the best pronunciation*. But

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* It may be thought that, in laying down this rule, I am proceeding in a circle: for I have elsewhere said, that you should speak as you write, and here it seems to be recommended, that you should write as you speak. Orthography and pronunciation must reciprocally assist each other; and it will happen that, in the case of a difference, the one may be ascertained, when the other appears doubtful; or, it is sometimes more easy to fix the one, than the other. That which is first established, will lend its assistance to the other. In this manner, I think, there remains no fallacy. The rule itself is sanctioned

the substantive acts of their verbs, for which the English make use of the participle. Das Lesen, the act, or employment, of reading; das Schreiben, the act of writing; das Gehen, the act of walking; das Reisen, the act of travelling.

(c) Any other part of speech which, by an article, or pronoun, prefixed, acquires the character of a substantive. Das Aber, the word *but*; das Ich, the pronoun I *(ego)*, &c.

Proper names have in all European languages, and consequently also in the German, capital letters for their initials. But the adjectives, derived from, or belonging to, such proper names, should likewise be written with capital letters: as, from Rom, Rome—Römisch, Roman; from Spanien, Spain—Spanisch, Spanish; Italien, Italy—Italienisch, Italian; Deutschland, Germany—Deutsch, German; Frankreich, France—Französisch, French; Plato, Plato—Platonisch, Platonick; Cicero, Cicero—Ciceronianisch, Ciceronian. These adjectives are generally written, in English, with capitals; but, in German, some persons do not distinguish them from common adjectives, and accordingly write them with small initials; which appears to be erroneous.

2. In English, the first personal pronoun *(I)* is always written capitally: in German, the corresponding pronoun (ich) has not this prerogative, except where it begins a sentence, or is to be distinguished by an emphasis. On the other hand, the pronouns of address, such as *thou, you,* which in English have, usually, only small letters, are begun with capitals, in German, as:

Du, Ihr, Er, Sie*. This is the effect of an imaginary politeness, by which also possessive and demonstrative pronouns, when they are used as the means of speaking to another person, are decorated with capital letters. For example, in these sentences, *I have received your letter, I have seen your father,* &c. the pronoun *Your* would be written with a capital.

3. The *Punctuation,* in German orthography, differs only in some trifling particulars from the English. The dissimilarity refers principally to the *comma,* and is as follows:

(a) The English frequently confine adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions with their cases, between commas, as in these examples: "He was extremely astonished to see his dominions overwhelmed, *on a sudden,* with such an inundation of licentious barbarians." Hume. —"It is, *accordingly,* this steady, inflexible virtue, this regard to principle," &c. Blair.—"Those who have great affairs to manage, intricate plans to pursue, many enemies, *perhaps,* to encounter in the pursuit." Blair. —"Let us cease, *therefore,* from looking up with discontent and envy to those, whom birth or fortune has placed above us." Blair.—"The world appears not, *then,* originally made for the private convenience of me alone." Harris.—"The fact, *certainly,* is much otherwise.—If sensibility, *therefore,* be not incompatible with true wisdom." &c. Melmoth's Cicero. — "In this, *however,* as above, numbers of the most beautiful

* See chap. III. sect. 1.

crystals were formed." Goldsmith.—There is not, *in my opinion*, a more pleasing and triumphant consideration." &c. Addison.—" He made preparations for recovering England of which, *during his absence*, he had, *by Henry's intrigues*, been so unjustly defrauded." Hume.—In these, and similar instances, the usage of German orthography would admit no comma before, and after, the words printed in Italicks.

(b) The Germans rarely put a comma, in the middle of a sentence, before the conjunction und, and; where the English generally add that sign of distinction.

(c) In German, a comma is invariably placed before a relative pronoun, which is, in English, very often omitted.

(d) The infinitive mood with the preposition zu, to, preceding it,* is always separated by a comma from the verb, which governs it. Examples: Ich freue mich, Sie zu sehen, I rejoice to see you; er fürchtet sich, seinen Vater zu beleidigen, he fears to offend his father; er glaubt, diesen Satz erwiesen zu haben, he thinks he has demonstrated this position; um diesen Zweck zu erreichen, opferte er alle andere Rücksichten auf, to attain this object, he sacrificed all other considerations. In the last example, the infinitive with zu stands in the first member of the sentence, and the comma is, there, put after it. This separating comma before the infinitive, is, however, only required, when that mood is accompanied with other words, which it go-

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* See Part II. chap. 1. sect. 2.

verns, as in the instances above. When it stands alone with zu, as in ich wünsche zu schlafen, I wish to sleep; er versucht zu tanzen, he attempts to dance; er wagt zu reiten, he ventures to ride: ich verlange zu wissen, I desire to know; hört auf zu reden, cease to talk; and especially, when this infinitive is governed by a substantive, or adjective: as, Lust zu spielen, an inclination to play; das Vergnügen Sie zu sehen, the pleasure of seeing you; der Wunsch gelobt zu werden, the wish of being praised; begierig zu wissen, anxious to know: in those circumstances, the comma is omitted.

The other signs of punctuation are used in the same manner by the Germans, as by the English. All these marks serve to enable us to read, with a proper tone, and distinction, the sentiments of the writer: and they are rightly employed, when, by their application, that object is attained. It is obvious that, on account of the peculiar turn, that is intended to be given to a sentence, and the particular mode, with which the writer may conceive the effect, which is to be produced by his expression, they must sometimes obey the will, or fancy, of an individual, rather than the rules of general practice. But their function is accomplished when they convey the sense and design of the writer. Thus after certain words, a comma, or another point, may be adopted, in some instances, when commonly they are not followed by a similar mark of separation. This modification of the laws of interpunction is not to be confounded with the fantastick novelties, which capricious persons have, at different times, endeavoured to introduce into this part of orthography.

4. The sign of *Apostrophe* (') is to be used

(a) In the genitive case of proper names. It is then prefixed to the genitive termination, which generally is *s*, sometimes *ns*, and *ens:* as, Agricola's Feldzüge, Agricola's campaigns; Plato's Gespräche, Plato's dialogues; Lessing's Trauerspiele, Lessing's tragedies; Hölty's Gedichte, Hölty's poems; Götze'ns Predigten, Götze's sermons; Uz'ens Schriften, the writings of Uz.

The application of the apostrophe is often to be recommended, on the ground that it leads to an easy discrimination of proper names. For example, by means of this sign, we are enabled to ascertain, that the nominative case of Götze'ns is Götze, and not Götzen; of Uz'ens, Uz, not Uze, or Uzen. But to gain this advantage, it must be carefully and accurately placed, before the genitive termination. As it is certainly useful in some proper names, I see no reason, why we should not admit it in all, though the practice is, as yet, not generally established; and the more so, as it might also serve for a distinction to proper names from common appellatives.

(*b*) The apostrophe should be employed, when the vowel *e* is, by contraction, thrown away, where properly it ought to remain. For example, Er sprach's, for sprach es, he spoke it; sage mir's, for mir es, tell it me; war's gut, for war es gut, was it good; ich versteh' es, or versteh's, for verstehe es, I understand it; Freund' und Feind', for Freunde und Feinde, friends and foes; bös' und halstarrig, for böse, bad and obstinate. In the inflection both of nouns and verbs, a similar contraction is frequent; but, in general, not indicated by the apostrophe: as, des Buchs, for

Buches, of the book; er lobt, for lobet, he praises; er lobte, for lobete; gelobt, for gelobet. Only where the pronunciation might suffer a change, if the omission of the *e* were not understood, it should be marked, as in er reis't, for reiset, he travels; in which the letter *s* should be pronounced soft, as it would be before the *e*, previously to the contraction. If the word were written reist, without the apostrophe, there would be a risk of the *s* being uttered sharply, as in er reißt, he tears. This would produce an inaccuracy in the language. Thus it would be well to write erlös't, for erlöset, redeemed; er ras't, for räset, he raves. But the surest way of preventing any mistake, in pronunciation, is to avoid such ejections.*

The apostrophe has, like other things, been perverted, and abused, by innovators, who thought they might render the German language a service, by introducing this orthographick sign, with all those privileges with which it is invested in some other modern tongues. They removed by it every vowel, which happened to be followed

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* Sometimes, however, they are not to be avoided, for example, when the metre comes into question, as in this passage of Herder's Zerstreute Blätter, Vol. 1. p. 21. (Gotha 1791):

Trägt das Schicksal dich, so trage du wieder das Schicksal,
Folg ihm willig und froh; willt du nicht folgen, du mußt.

In the second line, folg should have the apostrophe, folg', as it is put for folge, and the *g* must retain the pronunciation it has in folge, which it would not do, if it were merely considered as a final *g*.

by another vowel, under the false notion of obviating disharmony. But it is seldom that the German language require such an expedient: and the use of that abbreviation is confined within narrow limits.

5. The *Hyphen*, or sign of conjunction, (-, or =) is made use of

(a) When a word, at the end of a line, must be divided, for want of space. The division takes place, according to the syllables, as in English, only with the difference that this partition is solely determined by the pronunciation. When there is a consonant between two vowels, it is generally assigned, as the beginning letter, to the second syllable. For example, the word *writing* would be thus separated, in German, *wri-ting;* whereas in English, regard is had to etymology, conformably to which it is spelt *writ-ing*.

(b) Sometimes in compound words, as Freundschafts=Bund, league of friendship.

(c) When two, or more compound words, having their last component the same, stand together, and when the last component is omitted in the prior word, or words, and expressed only in the last: as, Schreib= und Redekunst, the art of writing, and speaking. The component Kunst belongs to both words, Schreibkunst, art of writing, Redekunst, art of speaking: but is only once expressed.

SECTION III.

ON THE PRONUNCIATION OF LETTERS.

If the rule of Quintilian*, "Let words be so uttered, that each letter may denote its appropriate sound," were established in all languages, the present subject would be attended with fewer difficulties, than it actually is. As to the German language, it is but justice to remark, that the power and the meaning of the letters, and the nature of the sounds, are less vague and undetermined, than is the case, more or less, in several other modern tongues. But it is not an easy undertaking, in general, to teach pronunciation by writing, without the assistance of a teacher's voice. You act upon the eye, instead of the ear, which is the proper organ for this species of instruction. The only way of imparting it, in that manner, is by comparing the letters and sounds of the language which is to be learnt, with those of a language already known. Such a comparison, however, is not always to be obtained. One language may have sounds, to which nothing similar is to be found in another. In such circumstances, some have thought, that a delineation, or description, of the form and changes, which the organs of speech assume, in pronouncing, would lead to a successful imitation of the sounds; but, on experience, it will be found, that this is a very precarious help to de-

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* Inst. Or. I, 11. *Ut expressa sint verba, ut suis quæque literæ sonis enuntientur.*

pend on. The task is much facilitated, when a comparison with several foreign languages may be resorted to: and of this expedient we shall to a certain degree, avail ourselves, throughout this section. The whole attempt will still remain imperfect: and the student cannot expect to make himself master of the pronunciation, unless by an intercourse with the natives. But notwithstanding these discouraging circumstances, the contents of the present division will not appear to be without their use. They will induce a more attentive consideration of the subject, than perhaps would be afforded by oral instruction alone. This will undoubtedly be wanted to supply the deficiencies of the former; but the written rules will, reciprocally, prove a beneficial support to the lessons of the master. With this persuasion, I have thought it worth while, to enter, with some degree of minuteness, into the following details.

VOWELS.

𝔄, 𝔈, 𝔍, 𝔒, 𝔘, 𝔜.

𝔄 (A).

This vowel has, I believe, in no language of Europe, that acute sound, which is assigned to it in English: I mean that, which, for instance, is heard, in *hate, state, male, gale,* and is, in English grammar, called the long sound.

In German, the *A* is pronounced, as it is in the French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and other languages: which seems to be between the short *A* of the

English in *hat*, *man*, and their broad one, in *hall*, *ball*. It approaches the sound of *a* in *ah*, *father*, and that of *au*, in *aunt*, *gauntlet*.

A is in some words doubled, by which no other change is effected, in the pronunciation, than that of rendering the vowel more full, and long. Examples: Der Aal, the eel; das Haar, the hair; die Maas, the river; Meuse; die Waare, merchandise.

E (E).

has four different sounds:

1. The broad, or open,
2. The acute, or elevated,
3. The slender, and
4. The obscure, or short, sound.

1. The broad sound of E resembles that of the long English *a*, in *name*, *fate*; or of *ai*, or *ay*, in *air*, *day*: and is the same with the *é*, or *è*, *ouvert*, of the French, and the accentuated *è* of the Italians.

It takes place, when E concludes the first, or middle, syllable of a word, not the last. Therefore, leben, to live, is pronounced nearly as *laben*; der Besem, the broom, as *bazem*.

Some words are excepted: Die Céder, or Zéder, the cedar; Cléve, Cleves, the name of a place; die Démuth, humility; É'den, Eden, paradise; die É'ge, the harrow; É'pheu, ivy; é'wig, eternal: jéder, each; jé and jémahls, ever; jémand, somebody; jéner, jéne, jénes, he, she, it, or that; Iréne, a proper name; die Lampréte, the lamprey; die Méve, the sea-gull; die Muskéte, the musket; die Pastéte, the pasty; Péter, Peter; die Régel, the rule; régie-

ren, to govern; die Scéne, the scene; Schwéden, Sweden; Schlésien, Silesia; die Siréne, the Siren; die Tapéte, the hangings of a room; die Trompéte, the trumpet; wénig, little in quantity; die Zéhe, the toe of the foot. In these the E has the acute sound, contrary to the foregoing rule.

The broad sound is not admitted, when an *h* follows; except in a few words: as, stēhlen, to steal, pronounced *stalen;* fēhlen, to fail; verfēhlen, to miss; der Befēhl, the command; befēhlen, to command; empfēhlen, to recommend; entbēhren, to want; hēhlen, verhēhlen, to conceal; der Lēhmen, the loam; nēhmen, to take; die Kēhle, the throat; das Mēhl, the flour; zēhn, ten. The Upper Saxons also sound the *e* broad, before *h*, in the following*: dēhnen, to stretch; drēhen, to turn; die Fēhde, the feud, or warfare; lēhnen, to lean; die Sēhne, the sinew; sich sēhnen, to long after; verfēhren, to damage; wēhen, to blow; wēhren, to guard against; zēhren, to consume. The Lower Saxons abide by the rule, and pronounce the words, last mentioned, with the acute sound.

In the following words, the broad sound is heard, though E is not at the end of the syllable: Begēgnen, to meet; bequēm, commodious; das Brēt, the board; die Brētzel, the bun; dēr, dēm, dēn, article; die Erde, the earth; ērst, first; das Ērz, the ore; hēr, hither; der Hērd, the hearth; das Kēbsweib, the concubine; nēbst, besides, prep. das Pferd, the horse; quēr, awry; rēgnen, to rain; der

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* See Adelung's System (Lehrgebäude der Deutschen Sprache), Vol. I. p. 262.

Schmēr, the grease; das Schwērt, the sword; sēgnen, to bless; der Stēg, the path; wēr, who; wērden, to become; wērth, worth; der Wērth, the value; das Nēst, the nest, (according to the Upper Saxon way of pronouncing.)*

When a contraction has taken place, E retains its broad sound, though it should be in the middle of a syllable: as, er lēbt, he lives, contracted from, er lebet.

When the E is doubled, the sound is always acute, though the Upper Saxons speak it broad, in die Bēere, the berry: das Hēer, the host, or army; das Mēer, the sea; der Spēer, the spear; der Thēer, the tar.

2. The acute sound of E is that of the Italian unaccented *e*, and the French *é fermé*. I believe, this sound exists in the English language, though I am at a loss to elucidate it sufficiently by examples. If I may trust to my ear, I think, it is heard in the pronoun *they*; and perhaps also in *hay*, dried grass.

The acute sound has its place before the letter *h*: as, Die Ehre, the honour; die Ehe, matrimony; stehen, to stand.

However, in some words, which have been enumerated before, the broad sound prevails, though an *h* follows.

The acute E is also heard before *th*, because this stands for *ht*, as will be shown hereafter; for instance, in die Bethe, the name of a plant; das Katheder, the professor's chair, or desk.

It moreover sounds acutely, when it is doubled; as, in

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* The Lower Saxons pronounce several of the words, mentioned in this exception, with the acute sound: as, Erst, Erz, Schmer.

die See, the sea; der Thee, the tea; das Beet, the bed in a garden, &c.

But the Upper Saxons pronounce the following words broad: die Beere, the berry; das Heer, the host, or army; der Speer, the spear; das Meer, the sea; der Theer, the tar. See before.

Observe, that *ee*, is no more than *e* long, and must be uttered as one sound. It is used in monosyllables, especially when *e* is the final letter. Likewise in die Beere, the berry; die Seele, the soul; der Kaffee, the coffee; die Armee, the army. When a word, ending in *ee*, is in the plural augmented by an additional syllable, containing an *e*, the double *ee* is then exchanged for the single: for instance, die See, the sea, plur. die Se-en, (not See-en), the seas; die Armee, the army, plur. die Arme-en (not Armee-en). the armies. For it is not the custom to write the *e*, in the same word, three times following.

From this double *e* must be distinguished two *e's*, by chance meeting together, each of which is pronounced separately: as, be-endigen, to finish, a verb compound, of be, and endigen; ge-ehrt, honoured, the participle of the verb ehren, with the augment ge.

The acute, or elevated, sound of E exists in monosyllables, ending in a consonant, though in these the double *ee* is frequently adopted: as, das Beet, the bed of a garden; leer, empty. In stet, steady, constant; stets, always, continually; and schel, oblique, envious, the *e* is single; which the Lower Saxons pronounce acute, and the Upper Saxons broad.

And lastly, it occurs in those words, which have been enumerated, as exceptions, under the broad sound.

3. The slender sound of E is audible, before a consonant in the same syllable; and resembles the English *e*, in *bet*, *yet*, *help*. For example: das Bett, the bed, pronounced like *bet*; das Feld, the field, pr. like *felt*.

But, in some words, the E, before a consonant, sounds broad, or acute, as has been observed.

4. Before any of the liquids (l, m, n, r,) the E is obscure, or nearly mute: for instance, die Distĕl, the thistle; der Athĕm, the breath; offĕn, open; das Messĕr, the knife; similar to the English *e*, in *opĕn*, *shapĕn*, *thistlĕ*, *metrĕ*. And thus obscure it remains, though one or more consonants should follow after the liquid: as, liebĕnd, loving; ein Liebĕnder, a loving person; die Tugĕnd, virtue; tugĕndhaft, virtuous; die Wissĕnschaft, the science; geläutĕrt, purified; geläutĕrtes Gold, purified gold.

At the end of a word of more than one syllable, the E has a kind of half sound, which somewhat resembles the final *er* of the English, as in *watĕr*, and the final *a*, as in *umbrellă*, *sophă*. Examples of this sort are numerous, as there is a great variety of words ending in *e*; for instance, the first person of most verbs and tenses; also many substantives, and adjectives. Ich liebĕ, I love; ich liebtĕ, I did love; die Liebĕ, the love; die Händĕ, the hands; die gutĕ Frau, the good woman; das gutĕ Kind, the good child; gutĕ Leutĕ, good people.

The English, when they hear the *e* so pronounced, sometimes mistake it for their *er* final, which shows that there must be a resemblance between those two sounds. Therefore, following the sound of lobĕ, they would spell it *lobĕr*; die Stubĕ, *stubĕr*. But in the words alluded to, nothing like an *r* should be heard.

This half-sound may be called the short sound of E. For we find it likewise in the middle of words, when the syllable it belongs to is short, or, which is the same, void of accent: as, liebĕtĕ, lobĕtĕn. It is often thrown out, as in liebte, lobten.—The prefixes be and ge have always this half-sound: as, Bĕreden, to persuade; gĕschehen, to come to pass.

When E is joined to I, it lengthens the latter, but loses its own sound. See letter I.

Note.—As a letter of the Alphabet, E bears the acute sound, which also serves for the name.

J (I).

is like the I of the Italians, which answers to the long *e*, of the English, or their *ee*; or *ie*, in *field*, *shield*: for these sounds are the same, according to Johnson.

It never has the sound of the long English *i*, in *fine*, *hide*; though it resembles the short *i*, in *milk*, *silk*, *with*.

It remains the same before, and after, all letters: and is not pronounced like *u*, when it stands before *r*; which is done in English, as in *flirt*, *bird*.

When pronounced long, that is to say, when the full accent rests upon this vowel, it generally has an *e* joined with it. *Ie* therefore is nothing but long *i*, equal to the English *ie*, in *field*, *shield*. Consequently, it would be erroneous, to sound each of these vowels separately: but die, is to be spoken *dee*; dieser, *deeser*; Sie, *see*: Liebe, *leebe*. Originally, however, they were pronounced distinctly; and this mode of utterance still prevails in the

south of Germany, where they speak Wien, Vienna, as Wi=en; dieß, this, as di=eß. But in those parts they also give this double sound to the *i*, when *e* is not added in writing, as, das Li=echt, for das Licht, the light.

The simple *i* is restored, when, in declining, the word receives an additional *e*. For it is not usual to write *i*, with two *e's* after it. Therefore, die Poesie, the poetry, in the plural die Poesien, pronounced Poesi=en, because it stands for Poesie=en; die Copie, the transcript, pl. Copi=en; die Melodie, the melody, plur. die Melodi=en; das Knie, the knee, plur. die Kni=e, for die Knie=e. Thus, ich schrie, I cried; sie schri=en, they cried, for sie schrie=en. In such instances, *i* and *e* are sounded by themselves. Likewise, in the following words: Das Hi=eroglyph, the hieroglyph ick; die Histori=e, the history; die Comödi=e, the comedy; die Lili=e, the lily; Schlesi=en, Silesia; Spani=en, Spain; der Spani=er, the Spaniard; die Ari=e, the air, musick.

I is also lengthened by the addition of the letter *h*, especially, when a consonant follows after it, in the same syllable: as, ihm, to him, ihn, him; ihr, you; ihnen, to them; ihre, theirs, ihren, to theirs. The *h* is, however, not frequently used, as a sign of length, after *i*; and hardly in any other words, besides those just now mentioned.

Among the various innovations, which have been projected in the German language, the omission of those signs of length has been attempted; but they were too well established to lose their ground.

The simple *i* is used long, in some words, for the sake of distinguishing them from others of the same sound, written with *ie*. For example: die Fiber, the fibre, to be

discerned from das Fieber, the fever: wider, against, different from wieder, again; die Mine, a mine (in fortification) —die Miene, a feature of the countenance. Die Bibel, the Bible, is also written with a mere *i*.

When more than one consonant follow after *ie*, the sound becomes short: as in der Dienstag, the Tuesday; das Viertel, the quarter; vierzehn, fourteen: vierzig, forty; ich gieng, I went; ich hieng, I hung; er giebt, he gives; though it would be more regular, in such words, to make use of the simple *i*.

O (O).

has the sound of the English O, viz. when long, that which is heard in *bone*, *stone*, *over*, *obedient*; or of *oa*, in *boat*, *oar*, *coal*: when short, it resembles the *o*, in *lot*, *got*, *trot*.

The German O always keeps its genuine sound, and admits of no such variations, as occur in some English words, for example, in *son*, *come*, *done*, *attorney*, in which *o* is pronounced like a short, or close, *u*; or in *move*, *behove*, where in sounds like a double *o*; or in *off*, where the sound is between *o* and *au*.

O is sometimes repeated, to show that the sound is long; or *h* added for that purpose: But let it be particularly observed, that the German *oo* is different from the English, and nothing more than long *o*. Examples: das Loos, the lot; das Moos, the moss; das Moor, the morass; das Ohr, the ear; der Sohn, the son.

U (U).

This vowel is the same in German, as in the Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese languages; that is to say, when long, it sounds like the English *o*, in *to*, *do*, *move*, *prove*; or like *oo*, in *hoot*, *boot*, *cooler*; or like *ou*, in *soup*, *youth*. When short, it resembles the obtuse *u** of the English, in *bull*, *full*, *bushel*.

It is never pronounced like the long *u*, in *use*, *mule*, *fuel*; nor like the short, in *dull*, *gull*, *custard*.

It was formerly doubled in some words, when the sound was to be lengthened, as in Muus, jam; but, at present, this reduplication is out of use.

Y (Y).

as a vowel, by itself, has the sound of the French *u*, and the German ü, of which see below. Thus it is, generally, pronounced in words derived from the Greek, in which it stands for the υψιλον†. It occurs, however, but

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* See Lindley Murray's English Grammar, p. 16.

† It is probable, the Romans pronounced it in the same manner. For they confounded it with the vowel *u*, which seems to have had the sound of the French *u*. This appears in the word *Sylla*, which was also spelt *Sulla*; and in *lacrymæ*, which was likewise written *lacrumæ*, from the Greek δάκρυα. Thus *Suria*, for *Syria*, in some editions of Tacitus. Ann. II. 77, 78, 79, 81, 82, 83. *Clupeus*, for *clypeus*, or in an abbreviated state

seldom, and, I believe, only in foreign terms, and proper names. The Dutch have it in their language, and pronounce it as the long English *i*. The French assign to it the sound of their *i* (English *ee*), and call it the Greek *i*, *Igrec*. In imitatation of them, it is by some Germans spoken in the same manner, viz, like *i*. But the other mode is, undoubtedly, to be preferred*.

Most frequently the ꝯ is seen in coalition with the vowel ɛ, and it thus forms a diphthong, equivalent to the German ɛi, or the long *i* of the English. As it expresses no other sound than the last mentioned, for which the language already has a sign, it appears to be superfluous. And we may observe of this letter, in the German alphabet, what Johnson† said of it, in the English, namely, that "we might want it without inconvenience, but that we have it." It seems to have been introduced into German orthography, as a substitute for long *i*, being

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(upon some ancient coins) *Clu* for *Cly*. See a note by Gruter to Tacit. Ann. II. 83, ed. Gronov. Amstel; 1685. It seems to be that sound, which Quintilian (Inst. Or. I, 4) describes as being between *u* and *i*. *Medius est quidam U* et *I literæ sonus*.

* Mr. Adelung, the chief of German grammarians, does not seem to have made up his mind upon this subject. In his Orthography, p. 26, he decidedly asserts that *y* should, in sound, be exactly the same as *i*; but this he contradicts, p. 245, by saying, that in words taken from the Latin, and derived from the Greek, it ought to be pronounced almost like *ü*.

† Grammar of the English Tongue.

originally written *ii* or *ij*.* Hence it is, in the vulgar schools, sometimes called *ii*, or double *i;* and by common penmen often marked with two dots, ÿ. Therefore, they write Junÿ, Julÿ, instead of *Junii, Julii,* which properly are the Latin genitive cases. The power of *i*, being given to ÿ, is evident in the following words: Hoya, Hoyerswerde, names of towns; and in the interjections, huÿ! denoting a rapid motion, pfuÿ! denoting shame, *fi!* which are pronounced as Hoïa or Hoja, Hoïerswerda, or Hojerswerda, and huï, pfuï. This explains the nature of the *y*, in composition with the *e;* and accounts, at the same time, in some degree, for its use in the English language.

But as this letter might be dispensed with, would it not be adviseable to discard it from the alphabet? It must be retained in proper names, and foreign words, and on that ground it claims a place. And when it stands for *i*, custom pleads in its favour. It remains for us to ascertain, when it ought to be admitted in that capacity: and this we shall attempt, when we speak of the diphthongs, *ei, ey*.

DIPHTHONGS

Closing with e Ae, De, Ue.
With i, or y: Ai, Ay, Ei, Ey, Di, Dy, Ui.
With u: Au, Aeu, Eu.

The diphthongs are, in German, pronounced less

* The Dutch retain the double, *i, ij*, in their orthography; the Danes likewise in some words, as in the pronoun *hijn*.

broad, than some of them are, in other languages*. The sounds, of which they are composed, are, for the most part, so melted together, that they bear the semblance of mere vowels. For this reason, the propriety of calling them diphthongs has been questioned; and those especially, which close with *e*, have been denied that name. But important as this argument may appear, from the zeal of those who are engaged in its discussion, it will be found that nothing by it is altered in substance. For if, in compliance with custom, any one chooses to distinguish, in the alphabet, the compound signs of vowels, by the denomination of diphthongs, where can be the harm? So the French name their *ai*, though it hardly differs from their *é* or *è*; and the English bestow that appellation upon their *ae* and *oe*, the same in sound as *e*; and upon *ai*, *ay*, the same as *a*. It should be recollected, that an alteration in the names, or terms, does not always profit the science, and may frequently embarrass it.

With respect to the diphthongs that close with *e*, it is usual, in the German characters, to put the *e* above the small letters, ä, ö, ü. In large letters, it is at the side, as Ae, Oe, Ue. Instead of the *e* at the top, two dots are often employed, to indicate the diphthong, as ä, ö, ü. These dots I hold to be a corruption of the *e*, from the current hand-writing, which, when hastily written, resembles two small perpendicular lines; and being trans-

* For example, the *au*, *aw*, *ou*, of the English; the *au*, *eu*, of the Italians; and *ou* of the Portuguese.

ferred into the printed alphabet, it has thus degenerated*.

Ae, å, ä, (Ae).

This diphthong, when long, that is to say, when spoken with the full accent, is like the English *a*, in *mane;* or like *ay*, in *day, pray.* Consequently, it coincides with the French *ai*, in *j'aimai*, and the *è ouvert* of the same ; likewise with the accentuated *è* of the Italians. It is, therefore, the same with the open *e* of the Germans themselves, of which see before.

When two, or more, consonants follow after it, the broad sound is exchanged for the slender, equal to the English *e*, in *held, vex, sell, rent;* as, die Hände, the hands, pronounced *die Hende;* er läßt, he lets or leaves, pr. *lest;* er fällt, he falls, pr. *felt*. The broad sounds are, in such instances, always abandoned, the accent of the word being supported by the double consonant, as will be shewn in the section on the accent.

Oe, ö, ö, (Oe).

The English have nothing to answer to this sound, when long. But when short, it resembles their *u*, in *gull*,

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* Mr. Adelung, however, remarks in his Orthography, p. 131, that the dots were used, in printing, previous to the *e*.

dull, custard, us, concussion; or their ***i***, in ***flirt, bird.*** or the ***o***, in ***son.*** Thus the German ö is pronounced when it is followed by more than one consonant: as, die Hölle, hell, pr. *Hulle*; der Tölpel, the boor, pr. *Tulpel;* der Klöpfel, the mallet, pr. *Klupfel.*

The long sound of this diphthong is nearly the same as the French *eu*, and may be produced by the English long *a* being uttered, with the lips rounded, and contracted: as, die Höhle, the cavern; öde, deserted, solitary.

Ue, ü, ü, (Ue).

Here also the English language leaves us destitute of a comparison. This diphthong resembles the French *u*; and may be imitated, in English, by uttering the long *e* or *ee*, with rounded and projecting lips.—In some provinces they pronounce ü like i, or the English long *e;* but this is erroneous.

It may be observed, that the sounds ö, ü, or the French *eu* and *u*, are acquired by the English with some difficulty. The reason is, that they have nothing correspondent, in their own tongue. The only way to facilitate the attainment of them, seems to be that mode of uttering *a* and *e*, which has been pointed out.

Ai, or Ay, (Ai, or Ay.)

sounds like English *i*, in *kite*, or like *y*, in *sky;* and is, therefore, the same as the German *ei, ey*; though some maintain, and perhaps not without reason, that it is

different, and ought to be pronounced broader. It occurs only in a few words, such as der Kaiser, the Emperour; der Lai, the layman; der Main, the river Main; die Saite, the cord, or string, of an instrument; der Rain, the green, or balk; der Hain, the grove; die Waise, the orphan; Baiern, Bavaria; der Baier, the Bavarian; der May, the month of May. In the middle it is to be written *ai*, at the end *ay*.

Sometimes this diphthong is employed in der Waitzen, the wheat; das Getraide, the corn in general; baitzen, to hunt or bait: though *ei* is more usual.

Ei, or Ey, (Ei, or Ey).

is pronounced as the long *i* of the English, in *fine*, *kind*.

Ey, should be put: 1. at the end of words. 2. For the purpose of distinguishing terms of the same sound, and of different significations: as, sein, his, and seyn, to be. 3. In compounds, when the component has the *y* before the composition, as beystehen, to assist; from bey, and stehen.

Oi, or Oy, (Oi, or Oy).

the same as in English. It is only met with in a few proper names: for instance, Groitzsch, Boitzenburg; and in die Boy, a sort of wollen cloth, baize.

Ui, (Ui).

has, by some writers, been substituted for ü, with which

it has the same sound: but, as the innovation was unnecessary, it very deservedly has been neglected*. Duisburg, the name of a town, is sounded like Düsburg†.

Au, (Au).

approaches the sound of the English *ou*, or *ow*, in *our*, *loud*, *cow*, *power*; and of the Italian *au*: yet it is neither so broad as the former, nor drawn out so much, in pronouncing, as the latter. In the Italian *au*, both vowels may be distinctly perceived, whereas, in the German they coalesce so closely, as to produce one consolidated sound.

This, however, may not be sufficient to enable the reader to speak that diphthong with accuracy; and he must, therefore, have recourse to the assistance of a native. In the mean time, he may without great errour, give to it the sound of the English *ou*, or *ow*.

Aeu, äu, (Aeu).

has nearly the same sound as the German *eu*, resembling the English *oi*. It ought perhaps to be uttered, with lips more contracted and rounded, than *eu*.

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* Properly speaking, there was nothing new in it; for the diphthong occurs in the most ancient German writings. It was, however, broached as something novel.

† See Adelung's Orthography, p. 143.

Eu, (Eu).

similar to the *oi*, and *oy*, of the English, in *boil*, *toil*, *joint*, *point*, *boy*, *toy*; and to the *eu* of the Italians. Yet there is a difference between these, and the German sound; for which the pronunciation of a native must be consulted.

CONSONANTS.

1. Simple: b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, s, t, v, w, x, z.

2. Compound: ch, chs, sch, ck, gn, kn, ph, pf, ps, th, ß, tz, wr.

B, (B).

At the beginning of a syllable, or before a vowel*, it is

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* This is to be understood of a vowel in the same word. It does not even apply to compounds; for in these the pronunciation of the components is, in a manner, distinct. Therefore, die Abart, a variety in a species, composed of Ab and Art, is spoken *ap-art*; liebäugeln, to interchange amorous looks, composed of Liebe, *love*, and äugeln, *to ogle*, like *liep-äugeln*.

like the English *b*. But when it ends a syllable, or stands next to the final consonant, or consonants, not being liquids, it generally is pronounced like *p*, as, ab, off, like *ap;* ob, whether, l. *op;* das Lob, the praise, l. *lop;* das Kalb, the calf, l. *kalp;* er lebt, he lives, l. *lept;* er lobte, he praised, l. *lopte;* der Abt, the abbot, l. *apt;* der Krebs, the crawfish, l. *kreps;* der Herbst, the autumn, l. *herpst;* das Obst, fruit, l. *opst;* hübsch, pretty, l. *hüpsh.*

Something similar is to be met in other languages; for instance the French, in which the compressed and close sound of *b*, at the end, is, in pronouncing, frequently exchanged for the more easy one of *p**.

The original sound, however, is retained in German, at the end of a syllable, when the next begins with a *b;* as in die Ebbe, the ebb; die Krabbe, the crab; die Flabbe, die Labbe, large hanging lips; or with a *d*, as, das Gelübde, the vow—not *epbe*, *krapbe*, *Gelüpde*, which would

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* The practice is common in many languages: it is even found in the Russian. And it appears from Quintilian (Inst. Or. 1. 7.), that the Romans pronounced the *b*, at the end of a syllable, like *p*.—*Quæri solet in scribendo, præpositiones sonum quem junctæ, efficiunt, an quem separatæ, observare conveniat: ut cum dico,* obtinuit: *secundam enim* b *literam ratio poscit, aures magis audiunt* p. Thence *b* at the end of a syllable is found changed in Latin, into *p*, not only when a *p* follows, but also before other consonants. Thus *Fortuna Opsequens* is read on some Roman coins, instead of *Obsequens*. See Eckhel Doctrina Numorum Veterum, Vol. VII. p. 24.

be hard to pronounce. Likewise in words, in which the letter *e* after *b*, is, by a contraction, omitted: as, das Diebsgesindel, a pack of thieves; die Schreibgebühr, the clerk's, or copist's fee; die Schreibart, the style of writing; die Hebamme, the midwife; das Knäblein, the infant boy; der Knoblauch, garlic—for das Diebesgesindel, die Schreibegebühr, die Schreibeart, die Hebeamme, das Knäbelein, der Knobelauch. But when *t* follows after *b*, it is pronounced like *p*, though a similar omission of the *e* had taken place; for instance, Geliebter, for Geliebeter, a beloved person, sounds like *geliepter*; ich lobte, for lobete, I praised, l. *lopte*.

The sound of *b* may vary in the same word, when by an additional letter, or syllable, its situation is altered: for example, das Lob, the praise, is spoken *lop*, because *b* concludes the syllable; the genitive case, des Lobes, of the praise, is not to be pronounced *lopes*, but *lo-bes*, because a vowel follows after the *b*, and, with this, it begins a new syllable.

B, in the pronunciation of some English words, is left out before *t*, as in *debt*, *doubt*; but such elisions do not exist in German.

C, (C).

before the vowels a, o, u, and the diphthong au, and before a consonant, is pronounced like *k*: which is the same as in English.

Before e, i, y, ä, ö, ü, ei, ey, ie, it is like *ts*, and the same as the z of the German, and the sharp *z* of the Italian language. Thus, Centaur sounds like Tsentaur; Cicero, l. Tsitsero; Cylinder, l. tsylinder; Ceylon, l. Tseylon; Cäsar, l. Tsæsar; the Latin *cœlum*, l. tsœlum.

In some proper names, it is pronounced like *k*, before å, ö, ü, as in Cärnthen, Carinthia, Cöln, Cologne, Cöthen, Cüstrin, names of places. Not unfrequently, der Cörper, the body, is written, instead of Körper, *k*. In these instances, it would perhaps be better to substitute *K*.

From the above it appears, that *C* partly shares the force of *K*, and partly that of Z; and, consequently, may be considered as superfluous, in the alphabet. On this ground, it has been condemned by some writers, who, in its room, adopt *k* and *z*, as the occasion requires. It must however, be preserved in foreign words, and proper names; and it is also wanted for the composition of some double consonants: so that it cannot be entirely relinquished. It should, therefore, be suffered to remain, where it is established by long usage, though no other reason should be obvious.

D, (D).

This consonant is of a similar nature with *B:* namely, it sounds like the English *d*, at the beginning of a syllable, or which is the same, before a vowel in the same word*; and like *t*, at the end of a syllable. Therefore, das Bad, the bath, is pronounced *bat;* die Hand, the hand, *hant;* der Hund, the dog, *hunt;* der Advocat, the lawyer, *atvocat*. That difference of pronunciation is also to be met with in other languages.

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* Provided the word is not a compound. For in these, each component has its separate pronunciation; as, die Handarbeit, the work of the hand; l. *hant-arbeit;* die Mundart, the dialect, l. *munt-art*. See note to letter B.

When a word, ending with *d*, is, in declining, augmented, so that *d* no longer remains at the end, but begins the next syllable, then the soft sound is restored. For instance, die Hand, is pronounced *hant*; plur. die Hände, pr. *hän-de*, not *hänte*, because *d* is no longer at the end of the first syllable, but commences the second, or stands before a vowel, in that word. Thus der Hund, pr. *hunt*; pl. die Hunde, pr. *hun-de*, not *hunte*.

This letter keeps its original power, when another *d* follows: as, der Widder, the ram; Edderitz, Eddesse, Eddihausen, names of places; Nidda, Nidder, names of rivers. And likewise, when *e* or *i*, is left out, by contraction: as, du fandst, thou didst find; der Tadler, one who finds fault; der Adler, the eagle; der Schuldner, the debtor; die Ordnung, order, arrangement; die Handlung, the deed, action; dem Würd'gen, to the deserving, &c. for fandest, Tadeler, Adeler, or Adelaar, Schuldener, Ordenung, Würdigen; in which it would be false to pronounce *d* like *t*. To these may be added some words ending in *ling*; as, der Fündling, the foundling; der Fremdling, the stranger; blindlings, blindly; in which *d* usually retains its soft sound*.

Dt was formerly written in many words that, by the present age, are spelt with *t* or *tt*: as, das Brodt, the bread; das Schwerdt, the sword; which are now expressed

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* Adelung (Orthogr. p. 164) thence infers the rule that is is always soft before the derivative syllable *ling*, though he admits, that in der Wildling, a wild, unruly person, it is often pronounced hard, like *wiltling*.

by Brot, Schwert. That double letter is only continued in a few words: for instance, in todt, dead; die Stadt, the town (to distinguish it from die Statt, the place), and in such as have suffered an elision between *d* and *t*: for example, gesandt, sent, from gesendet; ein Gesandter, an ambassadour; beredt, eloquent, from beredet; gewandt, versed in a thing, from gewendet; verwandt, related to, from verwendet.

F, (F).

perfectly the same as the English, in *full, find.*

When between two vowels, it is sometimes pronounced like the English *f* in *of*, which is equivalent to *v*. This, for instance, is done in the following words: die Briefe, pl. the letters, or epistles; die Wölfe, the wolves; der Schwefel, the brimstone; der Hafen, the harbour; der Hafer, oats; zwölfe, twelve. That mode of pronunciation is not uncommon, even among those who value themselves on their correctness of speech*.

G, (G).

This letter has been mentioned in the introduction†. Its true sound is that of the English *g*, in *go, gum, get, give, frog*. Thus it should always be pronounced; but some exceptions are to be noticed.

At the end of a syllable, after a vowel, it is frequently

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* Adelung (Orthogr. p. 166) calls it a fault.

† Page 8 and 11.

spoken like the German *ch**: as, der Tag, the day; er fragte, he asked; wir klagten, we complained; er bog, he bent; er trug, he bore; der Weg, the way; ewig, eternal; selig, blessed:—like *tach, frâchte, klâchten, bôch, trûch, wêch, ewich, selich.* This mode of utterance is derived from the Lower Saxon dialect: the Upper Saxons are apt to substitute the hard sound of *k*; pronouncing, for instance, Krieg, war, *kriek*; Berg, mountain, *berk*; Tag, day, *tak*.—When a *g* follows, the original pronunciation remains, as in die Flagge, the flag of a ship; die Dogge, a large kind of dog. This is also the case when a word, ending in *g*, receives, by inflection, an additional syllable: as, der Tag, gen. des Tages; der Krieg, dat. dem Kriege; ich trug, sie trugen. But in truth, it should every where keep its place.

Between the vowels *i* and *e*, it is scarcely heard: for example, die Seligen, the blessed, sounds almost like *Seli-en*; die Meinigen, my family, l. *Meini-en*; die Fittige, the wings, l. *Fitti-e*.

When preceded by *n*, it is, at the end of some words, pronounced like a gentle *k*: as in der Ring, the ring; der Gesang, the song, or hymn; das Ding, the thing; der Klang, the sound; ich fing, I caught; der Gang, the manner of walking, gait; jung, young; lang, long:—like *Rink, Gesank, Dink, Klank, fink, Gank, junk, lank.* But when a vowel is added, by inflection, to any such word, *g* resumes its own sound: as, des Gesanges, dem Ringe, sie singen. It maintains the same, according to some authors, in the middle of the following words: die Jungfrau

* See below, p. 69.

the virgin; vergänglich, perishable; empfänglich, susceptible; langsam, slow. In my opinion, it would be an advantage to the pronunciation, never to vary it.*

G, in the middle of a word, cannot begin a syllable; Therefore, der Finger, the finger, must be pronounced *fing-er;* Dinge, things, *ding-e*; Hoffnungen, hopes, *hoff-nung-en.* Compound words are excepted from this observation. For example, angenehmt, agreeable, being a compound, is read *an-genehm;* angefangen, begun, *an-gefangen*; ungeduldig, impatient, *un-geduldig.*

When *n* follows after it, in the middle of a word, that letter is, in pronunciation, repeated before the *g*. This applies chiefly to foreign words, for instance, the Latin *magnus*, which is spoken as if written *mang-nus*, *lig-num*, as if *ling-num.*

In the word das Genie, the genius, it has the soft sound of the French *g*, which somewhat resembles the English *sh.* For the word itself is French, though it is generally received.

H, (H).

is aspirated, as in the English words, *have, hold, helmet.*

Between two vowels, the aspiration is less strong, and

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* I would, however, not venture to speak so positively as the writer in the Monthly Review (for May, 1808), who says, that the former is *decidedly* a faulty pronunciation. For it is impossible to disregard the prevailing usage of the country.

† Though in some places, they speak this very word *ang-enehm.*

sometimes hardly perceptible; as in die Mühe, the trouble; blühen, to flourish; die Schuhe, the shoes.

When it ends a word, it has no sound at all: as, in früh, early; der Schuh, the shoe; der Floh, the flea; das Stroh, the straw; ich sah, I saw. But its power returns, when the word increases by inflection: as, die Schuhe, the shoes; die Flöhe, the fleas; sie sahen, they saw. I say, by inflection, not by composition: for the latter alters nothing in the pronunciation. For example, in die Stroharbeit, straw-work, composed of Stroh and Arbeit, and in das Frühobst, fruit produced early in the season, of früh, and Obst, the *h* is void of sound.

Besides its quality as a letter, *H* is used as a sign, by which the length of vowels is indicated. It is, in this capacity, chiefly joined to vowels (and sometimes to diphthongs), when a liquid (l, m, n, r), follows: as, der Stahl, the steel; das Mahl, the meal, or banquet; der Stuhl, the stool, or chair; zahm, tame; die Bahn, the path, or career; die Fahne, the ensign, or standard; die Ehre, the honour; wohl, well; mehr, more; ihm, to him; ihn, him; ihr, you; die Uhr, the clock, or watch; fühlen, to feel. In all these examples, the *h* shows that the vowels are long; and it is always to be considered as a sign of length, when it does not begin a syllable.

When a *t* is in the same syllable, *h* is generally united with this letter, preserving its influence over the next vowel, either antecedent or subsequent: as, in thun, to do; der Muth, the spirit, courage; roth, red; die That, the deed. In the words, der Thurm, the tower, and der Wirth, the landlord, the vowels are not lengthened by the *h*; which must be considered as exceptions.

The lengthened *H* is observed to have been introduced into writing, since the 15th century, and to have gradually obtained authority, till in the 17th it was universally established. It most probably arose from the aspirate, or full breath; which, when inserted in the middle of a syllable, must naturally prolong it. Something like this may be perceived in the elocution of the Irish, and perhaps existed in the ancient Greek.* After the German language had begun to be cultivated, it seems to have been one of the successive improvements, to divest it of many of its rough and guttural sounds. This appears in several instances; for example, words which had formerly been expressed with a strong gutteral *ch*, were, by degrees, written without it: for das Vieh, the cattle, was substituted das Vieh; rauch, rough, was succeeded by rauh.† In the same manner, the original sound of *h*, in the middle, or at the end, of a syllable, whatever it might be, whether a guttural, or a mere aspirate, seems to have been given up: and though it was preserved in writing, nothing of its nature remained, except what before was

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* The *spiritus asper* in Greek, is, for instance, inserted in the middle of a syllable, before and after ῥ.

† A striking illustration of the above is furnished by the adjective hoch, high; which, in its first adverbial form (see adjectives), retains the *ch*, but in the other forms exchanges it for the simple aspirate, as, hoher; hohe, hohes, der Hohe, &c. In compound words the *ch* remains, as in der Hochmuth, haughtiness; der Hochverrath, high-treason, &c.

only adventitious, I mean, the effect of making the adjoining vowel long, Even now, this alteration may, in some words, be traced. Schmählen, to chide, is pronounced without sounding the h between å and l: but it is ascertained, that this word was formerly schmähelen, with the second h aspirated, being derived from schmähen; with which die Schmach, contumely, is connected. Thus sehen, to see, and gehen, to go, are often contracted into sehn, gehn; er siehet, he sees, most frequently into sieht; Ansehen, appearance, into Ansehn. Thun, to do, was probably written tuhen;* theuer, dear, may have been teuher; Theil, part, Teihel.

Such was, in my opinion, the origin of the prolonging *h*.† It was, afterwards, appropriated as a grammatical sign of length, without any regard to derivation. Yet it is not admitted, as such, throughout the language. The orthography of many words was too firmly established to receive it. Of this kind are the monosyllables: as, schon, already; die Flur, the fields, the plain; die Spur, the vestige; der Schwan, the swan; der Plan, the plan; and others, which, though pronounced long, reject the *h*, as an index of their quantity. With these may be joined such as double their vowels, for the purpose of making them long: as, der Aal, the eel; das Meer, the sea; das Boot, the boat, &c.

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* Mosheim actually adopted this mode of writing.

† Adelung (Orthogr. p. 194, 246, 248, 168), supposes that this *h* took its origin from the *th*, which, he says, existed, at first, as a mere modification of the letter *t*, and afterwards served to give more tone to the vowels near it.

The lengthening *H* has not escaped the attempts of orthographick innovators, but their efforts to banish it from the language, have, in this as in other instances, proved fruitless.

J, (J, consonant).

resembles the English *y*, in the beginning of a word, and before a vowel, as in *ye*, *year*, *yes*, *youth*; or the Italian *j*. It chiefly occurs at the commencement of words: as, ja, yes; jagen, to chase; jeder, each; das Joch, the yoke.

K, (K).

is like the English *K*. When a double sound is required, *c* is put before it, as in English. This can be necessary only after a vowel: as, der Nacken, the neck behind; das Becken, the basin; der Stock, the stick; and even then, not always. But after a consonant, it is a useless addition, and ought to be excluded, where general custom does not defend it. It is, accordingly, erroneous to write, das Marck, for das Mark, the marrow; das Werck, for das Werk, the work. In proper names, this, as other anomalies, must be suffered to remain.—The ck has been objected to by certain reformers, who, according to their several fancies, have replaced it by k, or kk. Their notion, however, has not obtained any great currency.

When *K*, in the middle of a word, is preceded by a consonant, the pronunciation refers it rather to the foregoing, then to the following syllable, as denken, to think, pronounced *denk-en*.

L, M, N, P, (L, M, N, P).

are the same as in the English, and other languages

Q, (Q).

is always joined with the vowel *u*; it then has the sound of *k*, in every language, the *u* being more or less heard. In English, the pronunciation dwells long on the *u*, and produces a broad, or extended sound: this is also the case in Italian; but the Germans utter it short, which makes the sound of *qu* more slender, than it is in those tongues. Yet the *u* is not entirely omitted, as is done in French.

R, (R).

This consonant is, in a great degree, deprived of its natural force and shrillness, by the English mode of pronunciation; but it has them full and entire, in German, where it is uttered with a strong vibration of the tongue. In English, this sound is particularly slight at the end; whereas the Germans pronounce it very distinctly.

In der Rhein, the Rhine, die Rhone, the Rhone, the *R* is followed by *h*: which is copied from the Latin *Rhenus*, and *Rhodanus*.

S, (S).

has two sounds, as in English,

the sharp, and

the soft.

The sharp sound is that which is heard in *sink*, *sit*, *salt*,

so; and at the end, in *this, thus, yes, surplus, stress, bliss, ass, fuss.*

The soft sound resembles the English *s*, in the words, *bosom, wisdom, desire, present*, and at the end of *eyes, trees*; or the *z*, in *zeal, zone, brazen, freeze, prize.* But the German *S* is not so close, and compressed, as the English *z*. It may be said to lie between the sharp *s* of the English, and their *z*.

The sharp sound takes place before a consonant, and at the end of words, and syllables. The English pronounce the final *s*, for the most part, soft, as in *was, is, eyes, trees;* which is the reverse in German.

Before a vowel, or diphthong, in the beginning of a word, or between two, in the middle, *S* is always soft; as, die Seele, the soul; sagen, to say; dieser, this; die Rose, the rose. Also between a liquid consonant, and a vowel: as, die Hülse, the husk; die Amsel, the ousel; die Gänse, the geese; Hirse, millet; die Person, the person. To which may be added such instances, in which *e* is thrown out after the *s*: as er bläs't, he blows, for bläset; er ras't, he raves, for raset.

The sharp sound may be doubled, and is then expressed by ſſ in the middle, and ß at the end of a word: as, das Wasser (Was-ser) the water; lassen, to leave, or let; wissen, to know; beissen, to bite; der Haß, hatred; das Schloß, the castle, also the lock; häßlich, ugly; er ißt (for isset), he eats.

The sound of vowels and diphthongs, before ſſ, as before any double consonant (see the next section), is generally short, or slender. But in many instances, this double ſ is employed, in the middle of words, with the

power of the simple sharp ſ: where otherwise, if ſ were put by itself, the sound would be soft. In those cases, the vowels keep their original fulness. For example, wir äſſen, we did eat, pronounced like *ás-en*; die Gröſſen, the great people, l. *grós-en*; die Müſſe, the leisure, l. *Mús-e*; fließen, to flow, l. *flies-en*; grüſſen, to greet, l. *grüs-en*.

This has been considered as so peculiar a modification of the letter ſ, that it has been marked with a distinct sign, ß, and a particular appellation, namely *sz*. Such a mode of distinction does not seem to be superfluous, though the name may be deemed objectionable. We should, therefore, write ß, wherever the letter ſ departs from the rule, in the manner described: for instance, aßen, Muße, fließen, grüßen. When ß is found at the end of some monosyllables, in which the vowels are pronounced long, it is employed with a view to the inflection, and changes, of such words: as, ich äß, I did eat, ſie äßen, they did eat; größ, great, ein größer Mann, a great man; der Rüß, the soot, gen. des Rüßes.

S appears, frequently, united with *ch*; and thus produces a strong hissing sound, equal to the English *sh*, in *shade*, *she*, *show*. But even when single, that hissing aspiration is, by many, given to it, if a *p*, or *t* follow. They pronounce ſprechen, to speak, as *shprechen*; der Spaß, the jest, as *shpass*; der Speer, the spear, as *shpeer*; das Spiel, the play, or game, as *shpiel*; ſtehen, to stand, as *shtehen*; der Stein, the stone, as *shtein*. They do not confine themselves to those two letters; but speak, in the same manner, in words beginning with *sk*, *sl*, *sm*, and *sc* (when *c* sounds like *k*). For instance, das

Skelet, the skeleton, as *shkelet;* der Slave, the Slavonian, as *Shlave;* der Smaragd, the emerald, as *Shmaragd;* der Sclave, the slave, as *Shlave;* der Scudo, an Italian coin, as *Shcudo*. Likewise, in the middle and at the end of words, between the letters *r* and *t*: as, der Durst, the thirst, similar to *Dursht;* die Bürste, the brush, as *Bürshte;* die Gerste, the barley, as *Gershte;* der Fürst, the prince, or sovereign, as *Fürsht;* garstig, nasty, as *garshtig*. To this latter, however, they admit, that there are some exceptions, as the second person of certain verbs, du warst, thou wast; du wirst, thou becomest; du lehrst, thou teachest: and the ending of the superlative degree in ste, der erste, the first; der schwerste, the heaviest, &c. This way of pronouncing the *S* is, chiefly, prevalent among the inhabitants of Upper Saxony: but it has also been adopted by others, who have thought it a peculiarity of the High German. It is, in fact, nothing more than a provincial mode of speaking, in Upper Germany. There, this hissing aspiration is attached to the *S*, not only in the instances mentioned, but in many others; such as, *isht*, *bisht*, *Chrishtus*, *Versh*, *Marsh*, for ist, bist, Christus, Vers, Mars. Hence it has transmigrated into the High German; but it should be regarded as an unwelcome intruder. It has nothing to recommend it to favour: neither analogy, nor euphony, can be alledged in its defence. The Lower Saxons, in their native idiom, are ignorant of this aspiration in the letter *s*, and it would, indubitably, be an advantage for the pronunciation of the High German if their practice, were, in this particular, universally imitated.

T, (T).

the same as in English. Before *i*, with a vowel following, it sounds like *ts*: as, die Auction, the auction; die Lection, the lesson; die Faction, the faction; die Portion, the portion; thus in pronouncing Latin, as *gratia*:—which words are read *Auctsion*, *Lectsion*, *gratsia*, &c. But when an *s* precedes, *t* keeps its proper sound, as *quæstio*.

V, (V).

There is not the smallest difference between this letter, and F: so that one of them might be removed from the alphabet. Words, even of the same origin, are promiscuously spelt with one letter, and the other: for instance, voll, full, and füllen, to fill; vor, before, and für, for.

Between two vowels, or diphthongs, it is by some pro nounced like the English *v*: as in der Frevel, the crime; der Stüver, a German coin; der Sclave, the slave.

W, (W).

resembles the *V* of the French, Italians, Spaniards, and others, but not so exactly that of the English. For the *V* of the latter has in it a considerable mixture of the *f**, of which the German *W* is destitute. The English *V* is emitted with a strong pressure of the upper teeth to the

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* Hence it is justly considered as the flat *f*, and as bearing the same relation to this letter, as *b* to *p*, *d* to *t*, *g* to *k*, and *z* to *s*.

lower lip; but the W of the Germans comes forth, with only a slight contact of the teeth and the lip. It is very different from the English *W*, which is uttered with the lips contracted, or rounded, without touching the teeth, and sounds nearly like *oo*.

The sound of the German W seems to be between the *v* and *w* of the English. It demands particular attention; for the inhabitants of this country often fail in its pronunciation. Examples: das Wasser, the water; not to be spoken as *Vasser*, nor as *Wasser*, English; but the German W to have a sort of middle sound, between the English *V* and *W*;—thus der Weg, the way; die Welt, the world; die Wolle, the wool; das Wunder, the wonder; ewig, eternal, &c.

W is mute, in English, before the letter *r*, as in *write*, *wrap*, *wrong*; and in some other instances, as *answer*, *sword*, *wholesome*: but it is never so, in German.

X, (X).

sounds like *ks*: as in die Axt, the ax: die Hexe, the witch; das Exempel, the example—like *Akst*, *Hekse*, *Eksempel*.

Z (Z).

is, without any exception, pronounced as *ts*: for instance, die Zahl, the number; zu, to; zehen, ten—like *Tsal*, *tsu*, *tsehen*. Consequently, it resembles the *z* of the Italians.

T is prefixed to Z, for the purpose of doubling its sound; therefore, tz (*tz*) is equivalent to *zz*, which the Italians make use of. This consideration will determine,

when *tz* ought to be employed. It is never required after a consonant, because there can be no need of a double letter; but it may, in most cases, be admitted after a vowel. It is proper to write, setzen, to put; but it would be less accurate to insert a *t* in das Herz, the heart, *Hertz;* because, in the latter, a consonant already precedes the *z*. The occasions, where *z* and *tz* should be used, have not always been justly distinguished; and some degree of confusion has thence arisen, respecting this letter. But the matter is very plain, if considered in the point of view, which has been stated. Some persons, in the mean time, have, by these irregularities, been provoked, entirely to deprive the *tz* of its functions; and where the double sound of *z* is unavoidably to be expressed, they write *zz*. But it will appear, from what has been said, that they have been too hasty in their proceeding.

Ch, (Ch).

The English language furnishes nothing, with which the sound of this character may be compared. I can, therefore, not hope, in describing it, to be understood by those, who are barely acquainted with their native tongue. This sound is twofold,

Guttural, and
Palatick.

The *Guttural* is entirely formed in the throat, and answers, in a great degree, to the Welch ç or *ch*, the Scotch *ch*, in *Loch*, and the Irish *gh*, in *Lough;* also to the Spanish *x*, in *dexar*, and the *j*, of the same, in *lejos*.

The German *Ch*, however, is not so deeply guttural,

as the examples adduced. It takes place, when joined to the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and the diphthong *au*. Examples: Ach, alas! das Dach, the roof; noch, yet; das Joch, the yoke; hoch, high; das Buch, the book; der Geruch, the smell; der Strauch, the shrub; der Rauch, the smoke. Those vowels are in some words full-sounded, as, brāch, sprāch, hōch, Būch; in others, they are slender, as in nach, doch, Geruch.

The *Palatick* sound arises from a strong appulse of the breath against the palate; and is assigned to *Ch*, when in conjunction with *e*, *i*, *ä*. *ö*, *ü*, *äu*, *eu*. Examples: der Hecht, the pike; schlecht, bad; das Licht, the light; der Dichter, the poet; die Dächer, the roofs; die Löcher, the holes, from the singular, das Loch; die Bücher, the books; die Sträuche, the shrubs; der Leuchter, the candlestick. It is also admitted with other vowels, when between them and the *Ch* a liquid intervenes, as in mancher, solcher, durch.

In general, *Ch* stands at the end of a syllable; sometimes in the beginning, as in mancher, mancherley. The pronunciation, whether guttural or palatick, is then regulated by the vowels that follow.

Between *i* and *e*, it is scarcely audible: for instance, dem herrlichen, dem trefflichen; spoken like *herrli-en*, *treffli-en*.*

At the beginning of some words, it sounds like *K*: as, Christus, Christ; der Christ, the christian; Cristian, Christoph, proper names: christlich, christian, adjective; der

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* The Monthly Review (May 1808) objects to this observation; but it is founded upon the practice of the natives.

Character, the character; die Charte, the map, or chart; die Charwoche, passion-week; Charfreitag, good-Friday; das Chor, the choir or quire; die Chronick, the chronicle; die Chronologie, chronology; die Chur, the election; der Churfürst, a Prince Elector of the German Empire; die Churwürde, the Electoral dignity—and other words, beginning with Chur.

In words, borrowed from foreign languages, for example from the French, it keeps the sound, which it has in those languages, as Charlotte, Chagrin, Chicane, Chevalier, Charlatan; in which it is pronounced like the English *sh*.

In old writings, it is often put for *K*. Foreigners, who are not acquainted with the true purport of this character, or unable to pronounce it, in the manner before mentioned, generally attribute to it the sound of K. This sound it has always, when an *s* follows. For

Chs, (Chs).

is precisely the same as *ks*, or *cks*. This, for instance, is perceived in the words, das Wachs, the wax; der Dachs, the badger, der Fuchs, the fox; der Flachs, the flax; die Büchse, the box; die Achsel, the shoulder: which are pronounced like *Waks, Daks, Fuks, Flaks, Bückse*.

But it is to be understood, that the three letters must constitute one character, and consequently all belong to the same syllable. For they may, by chance, meet, and have the same appearance; but being without those requisites, their pronunciation differs: as in wachsam, vigilant; nachsehen, to connive at; where the *s* does not appertain to the same syllable, in which the *ch* stands. For these words are read *wach-sam, nach-sehen*.

When an elision of any vowel has happened between *ch* and *s*, these characters must likewise be uttered separately: for example, des Buchs, for Buches, gen. case, from das Buch, the book; des Lochs, for Loches, from das Loch, the hole; er sprachs, for sprach es, he said it—which are not to be pronounced *Bucks*, *Locks*, *spraks;* but with the guttural sound, and *s* following, *Buch-s*, *Loch-s*, *sprach-s*.

Sch, (Sch).

like the English *Sh*, in *she*, *shine*, *dish*, *dashing*. The vowels, before this character, are often pronounced long: as, sie wūschen, they washed; sie drāschen, they thrashed; but more frequently short: as, wáschen, to wash; dréschen, to thrash; die Tische, the tables; die Muschel, the shell or muscle.

It is to be observed, that *Sch* must form one character, in order to authorise that mode of pronunciation. Sometimes an *s* will accidentally come before *ch*, without coalescing with it. Examples: Das Bischen, the little bit; das Röschen, the little rose—spoken *Bis-chen*, *Rös-chen*.

Ck (Ck), see K (K).

Gn (Gn), and Kn (Kn).

are not to be spoken through the nose, as foreigners are generally disposed to do; but in such a manner, as if a very light *e* were inserted before the *n:* for instance, die Gnade, the mercy, as if *Gĕnade;* der Knabe; the boy, as if *Kĕnabe*. The insertion of this *e* will, at first, be a

great assistance, in the attainment of those letters, and may afterwards easily be laid aside.* The *K* is never mute before *n*, as it is in English, in the words *knife*, to *know*, &c. It must always be pronounced, in German.

Ph, (Ph).

is equivalent to *F:* as, der Philosoph, the philosopher, like *Filosof;* der Epheu, the ivy, l. *Efeu*. It is the same in English.

The pronunciation of

Pf, (Pf), Ps, (Ps), and Wr, (Wr).

may be facilitated by the interposition of a very short *e*, in the same way, as was recommended in *Gn* and *Kn:* for example, der Pfad, the path; das Pferd, the horse; der Psalm, the psalm; Wrisberg, a proper name —similar to *Pĕfad*, *Pĕferd*, *Pĕsalm*, *Wĕrisberg*.

Th, (Th).

is pronounced like T, and has never the sound of the English *Th*, or the Greek ϑ. The *h*, added to *t*, is merely a sign of length to the vowel next preceding, or next following. See letter H, (H), p. 59.

Tz, (Tz).

See letter Z, (Z). p. 68.

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* The critick in the Monthly Review, (for May, 1808) magisterially asks, "Would he really have us pronounce *Gĕnade?*"—No, I would not; nor would the Reviewer have thought so, if he had read the above with attention.

SECTION IV.

ON THE PRONUNCIATION OF WORDS, OR THE ACCENT.

BESIDES the sound of the single letters, another branch of knowledge is required, for the purpose of a right pronunciation, namely the *Accent*. By this is understood that stress, which marks a particular syllable, in speaking, and distinguishes it from those, with which it is connected. In the words, *ìron, fùlness, hàzard*, the first syllables have that prerogative: in *upòn, resìst, belòw*, it is assigned to the last.

The accent is indispensable to the art of speaking. It is, in this respect, as essential to language, as the helm is to a ship, without which its movement would be wavering, and uncertain. It must, therefore, have existed in every tongue, that was ever spoken by mankind. The Greeks and Romans, though they possessed a well established prosody, which, in some degree, influenced the cadence and modulation of their speech, incontrovertibly made use of accent. The poetick quantity alone would have been inadequate to the ends of elocution.

As soon as language proceeds from mere articulation to coherency, and connexion, accent becomes the guide of the voice. It is founded upon an obscure perception

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I suggested the insertion of a slight *e* to those who are awkward in pronouncing those letters, as a means of facilitating the operation: and as such, I have found, from long experience, it is of essential advantage to beginners.

of symmetry, and proportion, between the different sounds that are uttered.* The notion of that symmetry and proportion must, of course, vary according to the diversity, which may be inherent in the primitive and elementary sounds of different languages, and the constitutional organization of the people, that speak them. It is a kind of mechanism, if I may be allowed to use a metaphor, which adapts itself to different nations, different habits, and circumstances. Conformably to this, we observe a characteristick variety, with regard to accent, in comparing the languages of Europe. Each of them has its peculiar mode of accentuation, the Italian, for example, generally lays the stress of tone on the middle syllable; the French, for the most part, removes it to the end; and in German, it is commonly attached to the beginning of the word. But the laws, upon which this depends, seem to have no other foundation, than the bent and tendency of the organs of speech, to which the ear has been habituated.

In the German language, I consider partly the loca-

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* We are speaking of the verbal accent, which regulates the pronunciation of words; besides which, there may be said to exist the oratorial, or declamatory accent, by which the tone of whole sentences is commanded. The former determines the force of certain syllables, the latter modifies the relative energy of words. The oratorial accent depends upon the will, and intention of the speaker; and is, accordingly, arbitrary, and variable: the verbal accent is subject to fixed rules.

lity of the syllables, partly the quality of the vowels contained in them, as the ground of the accent. Some of the vowels are, in certain combinations, held to be less susceptible of the energy of the voice, than others; of this description are *e* and *i*, as will be shown, in the progress of this section. But locality chiefly determines the accent: by it I mean the place which a syllable occupies in a word. The tone, at first, assumed elevation by an uncertain impulse, or an obscure sensation of fitness, but this was, in the gradual formation of the language, settled into permanent custom; and constituted what is now called the accent. This appears to be the simple and natural way of explaining its origin.

Some ingenious men have accounted for it in a manner, very different from the foregoing. It is said by one*, that it is always the radical syllable of a word, which bears the accent; and by another†, that which has most meaning, and signification. Those syllables, then, are called the principal ones, and as such, it is pretended, they are dignified, above the rest, with the accent. But let it be recollected, that the accent must have been of an early origin; that language could not proceed far, without this conductor; that it must be referred to one of the first stages of civilization, in which not much was to be expected from grammatical speculation; and that consequently, the source from which it flowed, could not be remote and hidden, but must have been obvious, and

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* Mr. Adelung, in his system of the German Language, his Grammar, and his Treatise on Orthography.

† Moriz, in his Essay on German Prosody.

easy of access. To ascertain what syllable is the root of the word, which we are going to utter, to determine which has the most significancy and power of meaning, and, according to this, to fix the accent, presupposes so much abstruse research in one case, and so much philosophical judgment and precision, in the other, that we cannot, in sober reflection, attribute such a process to the untutored minds of a rude nation. They made use of that auxiliary of speech, before they were conscious of its existence: they might have a latent perception of its influence, but could not possess a distinct idea of its operation, much less invent, and establish it, according to the rules of science. We could only imagine such a contrivance, as having taken place on similar grounds, by supposing a society of wise and learned men, who had entirely created the language. For how are we to reconcile it to common sense, that, notions, which are now at tained only by a few, should, in the earliest times, have been current, and familiar with the multitude. They must have accurately understood the anatomy of language, and known how to appreciate the relative value of the parts of speech.* Upon these niceties of discrimi-

* Mr. Moriz arranges the parts of speech, according to their intrinsick weight, and importance: in proportion to which, he says, they are, more or less, entitled to the accent. See his Prosody p. 139 & 184. Hence the inference is natural, that, if that is the basis of accent, those, who first employed it, must have been aware of that principle. But this is more than improbable. He is not contented with that distinction of the parts of speech,

nation the theories, to which we have alluded, are built. But the nature of language is, I fear, little comprehended by him who can admit such a proposition. No search for radical syllables, no estimate of their innate power, led to the accent; it was rather the production of something like a mechanical process. The maxim, which Mr. Adelung himself sanctions*, namely, "that, whatever exists in a language in the form of general practice, and usage, has arisen from an obscure sensation (or perception) of expediency, or necessity, common to those who first employed the language; and that, therefore,

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but he remarks the various shades of difference, which each part may assume in peculiar situations. Thus he talks, p. 227, of one pronoun, as the mere reflection of another pronoun, or as the pronoun of a pronoun. Such speculations are, indeed, ingenious and subtile; but that qualification alone cannot give them any claim to our approval.

* See his System of the German Language (Lehrgebäude der Deutschen Sprache); his work on the German style (über den Deutschen Stil); and his introduction to German Orthography (Anweisung zur Deutschen Orthographie). In the last work p. 13 & 14.—So says Quintilian, Inst. Or. I. 6. *Non enim, cùm primum fingerentur homines, analogia demissa cælo formam loquendi dedit; sed inventa est postquam loquebantur, et notatum in sermone, quid quomodo caderet. Itaque non ratione nititur, sed exemplo: nec lex est loquendi, sed observatio; ut ipsam analogiam nulla res alia effecerit, quàm consuetudo.*

the principles, upon which such practice and usage are founded, can neither be abstruse, nor complicated," is particularly applicable to our subject: and it is to be wondered at, that the same author, who recurs to it, on other occasions, should have been entirely unmindful of its truth, where it is so strikingly evident.

To support such artificial doctrines, as those which have been mentioned, it is not sufficient to allege, that, in many instances, the fact corresponds with the theory that the accent is, indeed, frequently attached to such syllables, as upon enquiry, and consideration, prove to be the radical, or most significant ingredients of the word. This is mere coincidence, where it is met with, and cannot serve to extort from us our assent to notions, which, when examined, cannot stand the test of reason. But even that coincidence is by far not so general, as may have been presumed. I have not been at much trouble to seek for exceptions: but I will quote some, that have readily presented themselves. Mr. Moriz somewhere*, introduces the word Nachall, which literally signifies after-sound, i. e. the remaining vibration of sound, a sort of echo, being composed of the preposition nach, after, and the substantive der Hall, the sound. Of these two syllables, I think, that Hall should be considered as the radical, or significant one: but it does *not* receive the accent. Mr. Moriz, it is true, represents nach as the significant, or principal syllable in this word: that, however, can only be an oversight, arising from the blind par-

* Prosody, page 218.

tiality for his system; for the idea, that a preposition could have precedence before a substantive, would be at variance with the whole tenour of his opinion. That word, therefore, forms an exception. But I can add many similar compounds: for example, those beginning with the prepositions ab, an, auf, durch, für, hinter, in, mit, über, um, unter, vor, wider, zu, zwischen—as, A'bzug, A'nschlag, Aufstand, Dúrchmarsch, Fú'rsprache, Hinterhalt, In'begriff, Mitgift, Uebergang, Um'schlag, Un'tergang, Widerspruch, Zútritt, Zwischenraum. In all these words, the insignificant and accessory syllables, (for in that light the prepositions, must, according to Moriz and Adelung, be regarded, when compared to substantives) are accentuated. This makes against their hypothesis, whereas it perfectly answers to our supposition of locality. It might, perhaps, by some dexterity of argument, be made out, that what is insignificant and accessory, in one place, may be significant, and radical, in another: the advantage, and success, of this mode of reasoning I willingly relinquish to the authors. But not to confine my observations to compound words alone, I will subjoin those, which, being derived from the Latin and Greek, have the accent, not on the significant, or radical syllables, but generally on their endings. For example, die Natu'r, nature: die Natio'n, the nation; die Religio'n, religion; der Poe't, the poet; der Stude'nt, the student; der Barba'r, the barbarian; der Cana'l, the canal; das Orga'n, the organ; die Cultu'r, culture; das Axio'm, the axiom; die Millio'n, the million; der Genera'l, the general; der Elepha'nt, the elephant; and others. We find no difficulty in rendering this circumstance consistent with the principles of our

system, by simply saying, that, by a kind of tacit agreement, the locality of the accent in Greek and Latin words, when germanized, was fixed upon the termination. But how would the other theorists solve this problem, according to their rules? I shall here leave the subject which appeared to me, for several reasons, worthy of discussion; and proceed to the details of this section.

Syllables are either accented, or not.—The accent itself is of two kinds. 1. The complete, or full accent, which is assumed by the principal sound in a word. 2. The half, or demi-accent, which gives to the syllable, to which it is assigned, a more distinct and forcible pronunciation, than those possess, which are devoid of all accent; though it is inferior in energy, to those, to which the full accent is applied. For example, in *mèntal*, *mèrcy*, *hàlter*, the first syllables bear the full accent, but the last have none: in *meekness*, *softness*, *ointment*, the first are likewise possesed of the full accent, but the last are pronounced more distinctly, than in the former words. This may be called the *half*, or *demi-accent*.

We shall first treat of

THE FULL ACCENT (`)*.

I. In *monosyllables* it does not exist, when they are by themselves. For in one insulated utterance there can be no comparison of length or brevity. But when two or three monsyllables meet together, one of them

* What I term the *full accent*, corresponds with Quintilian's *Syllaba acuta*. See Inst. Or. I, 5.

may, according to its importance, be measured against the rest, and have an emphasis similar to accent, though, in fact, it is not the same. For instance, der Mann, die Frau, das Kind: here the article and substantive constitute as it were, one word; and the accent is affixed to the latter, being superior in signification. If the stress were laid on der, die, das, it would be understood, that the attention was to be chiefly directed to those words, consequently, that they were used pointedly, or as demonstratives. This is farther exemplified in the following: Er ist hier, Sie sind da, Er hat das: each of which phrases may be looked upon as a word of three syllables, and may, therefore, receive the full accent; but where it is to be placed, is determined by the intention of the person speaking. For Er ist hier, may be accentuated in three divers manners, at the option of the speaker. If the pronoun is the principal object of attention, it will be, thus: Er ist hier, *he* is here; if the verb, thus: Er ist hier, he *is* here; if the place, it will be, Er ist hier, he is *here*. It is the same with the other instances: as, Sie sind da, *they* are there; Sie sind da, they *are* there; Sie sind da they are *there*. So, Er hat das, *he* has that; Er hat das, he *has that*; Er hat das, he has *that*. This is, however, not the verbal, but the oratorial accent, of which notice has been taken, in the beginning of this section.* The verbal accent with which we are engaged, is not arbitrary as the latter. Monosyllables, therefore, are

* Page 75, note.

only susceptible of the oratorial accent. Where that is not applied, their tone remains ambiguous.*

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* Moriz classes the monosyllables in regard to their value, as parts of speech, by which, he maintains, that their capability of accentuation is determined. They are, arranged by him, in the following manner: Substantive, adjective, verb, interjection, adverb, auxiliary verb, conjunction, pronoun, preposition. As they are here placed, so they are said to have a respective claim to accent, one in preference to the other. See Essay on German Prosody (Versuch einer Deutschen Prosodie), p. 137 and 189. But this assumption is not supported by fact: frequent deviations occur from the line that is drawn. In du und ich, thou and I, und, being a conjunction, ought, according to that classification, to have the accent, rather than the pronouns, that stand near it: but it certainly has not. In the words, und er sprach, it might be thought to be accented. These are contradictions, which allow of no explanation, though our author attempts it, by saying that the same conjunction appears in a different point of view, when it connects sentences, and when it merely connects words. Perhaps our rule of locality would afford a more uniform reason. For by combining monosyllables into imaginary words of more syllables, you may place the accent, where the doctrine of locality points it out, and you will probably often be right. But the truth, nevertheless, seems to be, that, properly speaking, monosyllables can only have the oratorial accent. In a succession of monosyllables, I believe, it

II. *Words of two syllables* have the full accent on the first: as. das Fenster, the window; die Felder, the fields; die Gasse, the street; die Stube, the chamber.*

Except:

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invariably happens, though we may not be sensible of it, that one of them is thus accented. Quintilian says, it must be so, In. Or. I, 5. *Ea vero, quæ sunt syllabæ unius, erunt acuta, aut flexa, ne sit aliqua vox sine acutâ.*

* Moriz indirectly bears testimony to this rule, by saying, p. 225, that the German language naturally abounds in words, which form trochaick feet, that is to say, in dissyllabick words, with the first syllable accented, or long; and p. 236, that it has no pure pyrrhichian feet, that means no dissyllabick words, with both syllables short. This would, in the German language, be impossible: for, in words of more than one syllable, the accent must be placed somewhere, and render that syllable long, compared to the other. Hence the scarcity of spondees is also to be explained. No words of two syllables can have both accented: and as the accent generates the prosodick quantity, in the German language, no such word can be a spondee, or have both syllables long. In the Latin language, it seems, the accent was affixed in a similar manner. For Quintilian observes, that words of two syllables always bore it on the first. Inst. Or. I, 5. *Est autem in omni voce utique acuta, sed nunquam plus unâ, nec ultima: ideoque in dissyllabis prior.*

1. Words derived from the Greek, or Latin, which have suffered a change in their termination, to make them German. Such are, Virgil, Homèr, Horàz, Montàn, &c. proper names. Likewise, die Natùr, nature; die Religiòn, religion; die Natiòn, the nation; die Figùr, the figure; die Musik, musick; die Persòn, the person; der Poèt, the poet; der Docènt, the teacher; der Studènt, the student; der Altàr,* the altar; der Prophèt, the prophet; der Regènt, the regent; der Tyrànn, the tyrant: der Cloàk, a common sewer; der Canàl, the canal, or channel; das Orgàn, the organ (of speech, hearing, &c.); die Cultùr, civilisation; der Barbàr, the barbarian; der Baròn, the baron; from *Virgilius, Homerus, Horatius, Montanus, natura, religio, natio, figura, musica, persona, poeta, docens, studens, altare, propheta, regens, tyrannus, canalis, organon, cultura, barbarus, baro.* These words have the accent on the last; Pìndar, from Pindarus, however, has it on the first. The word Pastòr, denoting a parish priest, is commonly pronounced with the accent on the last, though it has undergone no change in its termination.

2. Some other words, not properly German: as, der Alàun, alum: der Altàn, the balcony; der Anìes, or Anìs, anise; der Barbìer, the barber; der Bombàst, bombast; der Fasàn, the pheasant; der Granàt, garnet, also prawn, or shrimp; der Granàtapfel, pomegranate; der Husàr, the

* Thus Adelung accentuates it: see his Orthography, p. 113.

hussar; das Kamèl, the camel; der Kapàun, the capon; das Klystièr, the clyster; der Krakèel, the quarrel; der Lackèy, the lackey; der Moràst, the morass; der Radièß, the radish; das Revier, the district, or quarter; der Rubìn, the ruby; der Rubicèll, Spinèll, precious stones; der Saffiàn, Morocco leather; der Soldàt, the soldier; der Spinàt, spinage; der Spiòn, the spy; das Stackèt, a fence of pales.—Some of these words may be referred to the first exception.

3. Certain compound adverbs, and conjunctions namely such as begin, with:

all, als: allein, allhièr, allda, alsbàld, alsdènn.
an: anbèy, anheim, anhèr, anjètzt, annòch.
bey, bis: beyseit, bishèr.
da: dafèrn, daheim, daselbst, daràuf, daràus dabèy, davòr, daràn, davòn.
der, die: dereinst, dieweil.
ein, emp, ent: einhèr, empòr, entzwèy.
fort: fortàn, forthin.
für: fürwàhr.
gleich: gleichwie.
hier: hierhèr, hierhin.
hin: hinàb, hinàn, hinàuf, hinàus, hindùrch, hineìn, hinfòrt, hinwèg.
in: indèm.
je: jedòch, however. But jèmals, ever; and the pronoun, jèmand, any one, or some one, have the accent on the first.
mit: mithin.

nach, nun: nachdem, nachher; nunmehr, (sometimes pronounced nunmehr).
ob: obgleich, obschon, obwohl.
um: umher, umhin, umsonst. Add kurzum, warum.
vor: voran, vorbey, vorher, vorhin.
wo: wobey, wodurch, womit, woran, woraus, worin, wovon, wozu.
zu: zuerst, zuletzt, zunächst, zuvor.

It sometimes happens, that the accent varies in similar words, according to the view of the person speaking: for instance, in those beginning with *da, hier, wo:* as, daher, hieraus, woraus. The accent, being laid on the first, makes them strong demonstratives.

4. The prefixes, *be, emp, ent, er, ge, ver, zer,* are not susceptible of any accent, therefore, words, beginning with such prefixes, have the accent on the last: as, betraf, empfing, entsprach, erschrack, gelobt, verzog, zerrann.

A caution is necessary, in the application of this rule, with reference to *be* and *ge*. In some words, these are not prefixes, but radical syllables, and consequently cannot be deprived of their accent, if their place entitles them to it. Of this kind are: beben, to tremble; beten, to pray; der Besem, the broom; geben, to give; gegen, against; gehen, to go

III. *Words of three syllables* have the full accent on the first.

Except:

1. The following: balsamisch, lebendig, hanthiren, stolziren.

2. Words from the Greek and Latin, that have been germanized, by a change in their termination, as: das Axiòm, the axiom; die Actiòn, the action; die Milliòn, the million; die Billiòn, Trilliòn, the billion, trillion; der Elephànt, the elephant; der Patriòt, the patriot; der Generàl, the general; Epicùr, a proper name, &c. from *actio, millio, billio, trillio, elephantus, patriota, generalis, Epicurus.*

3. A few foreign words, which bear the accent in the middle: as, die Fasèle, a kind of bean (Lat. *phaseolus*); das Regìster; the register; das Capìtel, the chapter; die Cabàle, the cabal; die Mechànick, the science of mechanicks.

4. Some proper names, as Uly'sses, Achìlles, &c.

5. Certain compounds, namely, such as begin, with:

all: allwìssend, allgemèin, allbereìt, allemàhl, allensàlls, allerdings, allerlèy, allerèrst, allerhànd, allerwà'rts, allesàmt, allezeìt, allernà'chst, Allweìsheit, allmà'chtig, allmà'hlig, alltà'gig, allzuviel, allzuse'hr.

aus: ausdrù'cklich, ausnèhmend, ausspreìchlich.

bey, bis: beysàmmen, bisweìlen.

da: dahìnter, darùnter, darù'ber, dawìder, dazwìschen.

der, des: derhàlben, dermàhlen, dermahleìnst, deshàlben, desgleìchen.

durch, in compound verbs inseparable, never takes the accent: as, durchgèhen, durchlàufen, durchreìsen, durchstreìchen; but when separable, it has the full accent, as, dù'rchreìsen, dù'rchlaufen. See the compound verbs.

ehe, ein, einst: ehedèm, einànder, einstmàlen, einstweìlen.

je, im, in: jedènnoch, imgleichen, (also, ingleichen), immittelst, indèssen, inzwischen.

miss: in mißràthen, mißlingen, two verbs neuter; otherwise this prefix always bears the accent, in composition.

über: überàus, überèck, übereìn, überhàupt, überhìn.

vor: vornèhmlich, vortrèfflich, vorzù'glich, and other words ending in *lich*, vor is unaccented; otherwise it takes, in composition, either the full accent, as in Vòrsehung, Vòrstellung, or the demi-accent, as in vo'rgà'ngig, vo'rlà'ufig.

will. willkòmmen, welcome.*

zu: zugègen, zuwìder. In other compounds it has the demi-accent.

6. Certain compounds, with the demi-accent on the first†. They are such as begin,

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* This word is not composed of der Wille, the will; but of an old adverb will, which Adelung (in his Dictionary), says, signifies *pleasantly*, *agreeable*, and still exists in some of the Lower German provinces. This accounts for the accent: for had it been from der Wille, the syllable will, as being derived from a noun, must have borne the demi-accent, as it does in willfà'hrig, complying; willkù'hrlich, arbitrary. Whether will may not have been originally the same as the English *well*, in *welcome*, I will not decide: but the same particle, *well*, composes that word in the sister languages of the German, viz. in the Dutch, *welkom*, Swedish *vällkommen*, Danish *velkommen*.

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bey, bis: beysà'mmen, bisweìlen.

da: dahìnter, darù'nter, darù'ber, dawìder, dazwìschen.

der, des: derhà'lben, dermàhlen, dermahleìnst, deshà'lben, desgleìchen.

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a. With *the syllable of a noun* (or *verb*): as, fróhlò=cken, gróßmû'thig, lángweilig, léichtdènkend, léichtfè'rtig; from froh, groß, hoch, lang, leicht, adjectives; glü'ckſèlig, nóthwè'ndig, from das Glück, die Noth, substantives; báu=ſá'llig, mè'rkwûr'dig, from der Bau, das Merk, substantives, or bauen, merken, verbs.

b. With the particles, *ab, an, auf, aus, bey, der, ein, fort, für, her, hin, los, mit, nach, ob, un, vor, zu:* as, ábwèndig, ábſpè'nſtig, ánkòmmen, aúſkla'ren, aúsgèben, bè'yſtèhen, dárbiè'ten, Dárleihe, éingèben, hè'rkòmmen, híngè=hen, lóssprè'chen, mítnèhmen, náchſèhen, náchſìchtig, óbliegen, óbwáitend, úndánkbar, únfréundlich, úngû'tig, únèndlich, ún=ſchá'ßbar, únzá'hlig, vórſtèllen, vòrſìchtig, zúwènden, zú=drìnglich.

7. The prefixes *be, emp, ent, er, ge, ver, zer,* as has been already mentioned, never admit an accent: for example, befè'hlen, empfìnden, entfàllen, erbrè'chen, gehòr=chen, verdè'rben, zerrèissen.

IV. *Words of four syllables, and more,* in order to

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lable should be uttered, as if it were unconnected with the two that follow: as, fróh=lòcken, gróß=mû'thig, án=kòm=men, aúf=kla'ren, ún=gûl'tig, ún=záh'lig. The two last syllables are then pronounced by Rule II. It is not practicable to do justice to the demi-accent, before the full accent, in any other manner. Words beginning with *un,* are thus spoken. It should, therefore, be ún=dánkbar, as it is ùn=freùnd=lich; not ùndankbar, (‾˘˘), as it is sometimes pronounced.

facilitate their accentuation, may be bisected, that is to say, divided into halves, each of which then will have its own accent, as a word by itself, according to the foregoing rules.

Observe,

1. If they are compounds, the section is to be made where the components are joined, as in Mèrk=wù'rdigkeit, E'rdbeer=bá'ume, Fàstnacht=spìele, U'naus=lò'schlichkeit, U'naus=spre'chlichkeit, Feld=pòst=mèister.*

2. If they are not compounds, the division should be equal in words of four syllables, as in mùsi=kàlisch, Gesèll=schàften, òffen=bàren, tàdel=hàfte, Àlter=thù'mer, Kò'ni=

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* In a word of four syllables, so compounded that, if reduced to three syllables, by cutting off the last syllable, the first and third would have the demi-accent, and the middle one the full accent, the section should be in the middle, so as to make each half of two syllables, the first of which two syllables is to be accented. Of this kind is ùndank=bàrer, u'ndàn'k=bàre, ùndàn'k=bàres, in which the division, for the reason assigned, is not made at the point of composition, namely, after un, but in the middle, as if the word were no compound. Thus u'nschä'tz=bàrer, ùnschà'tz=bàre, ùnschàtz=bàres. In certain compounds, beginning with dissyllabick prepositions, such as, über, unter, wider, the division cannot be made use of, because these prepositions are accentless: for example, überrè'den, unterbrè'chen, widerstrè'ben.

ginnen, insòn=derheit. In words of five syllables, it must naturally be unequal, as in Vertheì=digùngen, verge=sèllschàftet.

3. In words of four syllables, that partition does not take place, when the two first are totally void of accent, as in Agamèmnon; the stress is then laid upon the third, or the last syllable but one; nor, when the two last, or first and third syllables are unaccented; for in this case, the second has the tone, as in Telèmachus, verfù'hrerisch.

4. The same principles are to be applied to words of six or seven syllables, if any such occur. For example, Gerechtigkeitsliebe, which may be divided into three parts, Gerècht=igkèits=liebe.

The method of thus dividing long words, for the purpose of giving facility to accentuation, seems to answer that object in most instances, according to the foregoing observations. It will be found practically useful, whatever difference of opinion there may be in theory. For though it may be said that, even in the longest word, there is but one chief accent, it will be found more easy to conceive this in mind, than to express it by voice.

THE DEMI-ACCENT (′).

It has been explained before, what is meant by that term; namely, the tone of a syllable, which, though it has not the strongest sound in a word, is yet pronounced more forcibly, and distinctly, than others, which are said to be totally void of accent. Of this some examples have been adduced. For instance, to the last syallables

of *rùdimént*, *caùstick*, *fùlnéss*, *ìdlenéss*, *oùtlét*, the demi-accent is assigned, because they are discriminately uttered; whereas in *heàvy*, *tèmporary*, *mòral*, *càndour*, *tèmple*, they are lightly passed over, so as not to produce a precise and accurate sound of the vowels, which they contain.

The demi-accent, in German is peculiar to

1. All monosyllables, whether terminating with a vowel, or consonant.

2. The vowels at the end of words: as, Mine'vá, Sò=phá, àlsò, jè'zò, U'hú. Except *e*, which is unaccented, as Freùde, lòbe.

3. The syllables *aft*, *al*, *all*, *um*, *ar*, *ath*, *ei*, *eit*, *ing*, *inn*, *iss*, *um*, *ung*, *uth*, being terminations of words: as, Gesèllchàft, tàdelhàft, Schìcksàl, Nàchhàll, mù'hsàm, òffenbàr, Mònàth, Tà'ndelèy, Nàsere'y, Frèihèit, Jù'ngling, Kò'ni=ginn, Fìnsterniß, Fù'rstenthùm, Hàndlùng, Àrmùth.

4. The same syllables, not being terminations: as, Schicksàle, Freiheiten; unless, from their situation, the full accent fixes on them, as in Gesèll=schàften, Tà'nde=lèyen. See the words of four syllables.

5. Some other syllables: as, *and*, *ard*, *art*, *eim*, *itz*, *old*, *on*, *or*, *orm*, *und*, *uft*, either as terminations, or in the middle. Examples: Heìlànd, Bàstàrd, Bàstàrde, D'heìm, D'heìme, Stìèglìtz, Hèròld, Hèròlde, À'hor'n, Gèrìdòn, À'bgrù'nd, Fèlskluft.

6. The prior syllables of certain compounds, alluded to before, bàu'fà'llig, mèrkwù'rdig, lèichtsìnnig, &c.

VOID OF ACCENT, are

1. The prefixes, *be*, *emp*, *ent*, *er*, *ge*, *ver*, *zer*.— Examples are numerous: as, Befèhl, empfàngen, entgègen, ersùchen, Gerìcht, vertràgen, zerreissen. It may not be amiss to repeat, that the prefixes *be* and *ge* ought not to be confounded with the original syllables of the following words, Besem, bèben, bèten, gèben, gègen, gèhen, Gèrìbon.

2. Dissyllabick prepositions, in verbs compound inseparable, of four syllables: such as, hinter, ùber, unter, wider, in hintergèhen, ùbertrèten, unterrèden, widerstèhen.

3. The syllables *e*, *el*, *ell*, *en*, *end*, *er*, *ern*, *et*, *ig*, *ich*, *icht*, being terminations, as in Fàrbe, Rà'thsel, hàben, Jùgend, Vàter, Fèdern, lòbet, zwànzig, glù'cklich, fleìschicht.

4. The same syllables, in the middle (unless they become liable to the full accent): as, rà'thselhaft, lòbete, fleìschichte.

Before the subject of the accent is dismissed, it will be necessary to add a few words concerning the *Vowels* and *Diphthongs*.

THE SOUND OF THE VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

is either broad and long, or slender and short. *A*, for instance, is broad, or long, in the English words, *all*, *call*, *fall*; and slender, or short, in *father*, *fancy*, *glass*. The *i* is long in *field*; and short in *fill*, *fin*. The *o* long in *note*, *bone*, *home*, *over*; and short in *lot*, *trot*, *got*. This difference is also observable in diphthongs,

as in the words *receive*, *seize*, in which *ei*, is long; and in *forfeit*, where it is short.

I. The vowels and diphthongs have, in the German language, a *long*, or *broad*, sound:

1. At the end of a syllable, as in haben, beten, loben, Tugend.* The *e* at the end of words is excepted.

2. When a syncope, or contraction in the middle, has taken place, which chiefly happens by an ejection of the letter *e*. Examples: Labst, labt, labte, gelabt, for labest, labet, labete, gelabet. Lobst, lobt, lobte, gelobt, for lobest, lobet, lobete, gelobet. Sparst, spart, sparte, gespart, for sparest, sparet, sparete, gesparet. Schonst, schont, schonte, geschont, for schonest, schonet, schonete, geschonet.

3. When a sign of length is added. This may be either

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* Though this principle generally prevails, it is not always duly regarded. A proof of this is the word Name name, which some persons, and among them Mr. Adelung, (Orthography, p. 249.) insists upon writing Nahme. The lengthening *h* is here erroneously inserted, because *a*, from its situation alone, receives the full, and long sound. By omitting the *h*, the native appearance of the word, and its similarity to other languages (for instance to the English *name*, Swedish *namn*, &c. is preserved, and it is, besides distinguished from nahm, preterimpf. of nehmen, to take. Thus Mr. A. writes, unnecessarily, bethen, to pray; biethen, to bid, (Orthography, p. 258.) for beten, bieten.

a reduplication of the same vowel, as in Aal, Meer, Boot; or an adjection of another vowel, as *e* to *i*, in Spiel, spielt; or the letter *h** as in Hahn, Fahne, sehr, ihm, ihr, &c.

As exceptions from this rule may be considered the following words: Vierzig, forty; das Viertel, the quarter; die vierte,† the fourth; dieß, this; Dienstag, Tuesday; wahrlich, verily; which, though provided with the signs of length, give to their vowels the short or slender sound, as if they were written *virrzig*, *virrtel*, *virrte*, *diss*, *dinstag*, *warrlich*.

4. In monosyllables, as in trāt, wēr, schōn, nūn.

Except,

a. The following, ob, an, bin, bis, das, des, es, gib, grob, hat, hin, im, in, man, mit, ob, Schmid, um, von, was, weg, zum.

b. And when two consonants follow after the vowel, as in bálb, dánn, dáß, Géld, wóllt, Schuld, wénn.

Before ß, however, the vowels, and diphthongs are frequently long: as, āß, grōß, Fūß, sūß. Before ch they are also long in some words, as in Schmāch, hōch, Būch; and thus, sometimes, before sch, as drāsch, wūsch.

5. In the last syllable of foreign words, where the

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* See p. 59.

† I think it proper to quote to these words Mr. Adelung's authority, (Orthography, p. 76,) who joins them with the rest, mentioned under this exception, though they are not, in every province, pronounced with the slender sound of the vowel.

main accent is at the end: as, Natūr, Orgān, Homēr, Horāz. &c. See above.

11. The vowels, and diphthongs, have a *short*, or *elevated*, sound,

Before two consonants: as, in all, Fackel, Ecke, oft, Huld, Hand, Hände, Glanz, glänzen, völlig.

Except,

a. The following words: Adler, Art, Bärs, (a fish, the perch), Bärt, Börte, Börse, Brätsche, dürfter, Erde, erst, Flötz, Gebärde, Gröbs, Härz, Hērd, Hērde, Hüften, Kēbs, (in the compounds, Kēbsehe, Kēbsweib, &c.) Klöster, Krēbs, Mägd, Mōnd, nēbst, Obst, Osten, Ostern, Pferd, Päpst, Pröbst, rösten, Schärte, Schüster, Schwärte, Schwērt Stätte, stēts, tōdt, Trōst, Trübsal, Vōgt, wērden, wüste, zärt. According to Adelung*, these also are to be added; Jägd, Nest, Quärz, Schmütz, which some, especially the Lower Saxons, pronounce with the slender sound.

b. Those, which have undergone a syncope, or contraction in the middle: as, Löbst, lōbt, lōbte, gelōbt, for lobest, lobet, lobete, gelobet; spärst, offenbärt, gehörst, gehört, schönster, der schönste, for, sparest, offenbaret, gehöreſt, gehöret, schöneſter, der schöneſte.

c. Those which are supported by a sign of length.

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* Orthography, p. 65, 232 and 233.

SECTION V.

ON PROSODY.

THIS is the elementary science of versification. As verse is the compass of a certain number of words, measured by their syllables, the nature of these syllables is the principal object of prosody. They constitute metre, by their capacity of being either long, or short. A combination of such syllables makes a foot, several feet produce a verse. But to use these constituent parts with correctness, and propriety, it is necessary to understand their length and brevity, and the reasons, by which they possess those qualifications.

In the Greek and Roman languages, the measure of the syllables, or their *quantity*, was accurately fixed. Every syllable had acquired its invariable character, of being long, or short, either from the nature of the letters, which composed it, or from ancient and unalterable usage. The dimension of its sound was ascertained, and established, and, according to that only, the poet, or versifier, was at liberty to employ it.

The modern tongues of Europe have, strictly speaking, no laws of quantity. Their metres contain a limited portion of syllables, arranged together, more according to number, than by any precise rules of length, or shortness. The only restraint imposed is, not to violate *the accent*, which controls, and governs the pronuncia-

tion*. The poet cannot be permitted to change the audible effect of the language: but conforming to this restriction, he may, as far as the mechanical part of versification is concerned, make use of the syllables, according to his will, and convenience. Such is the nature of modern prosody, in general, and of the German, in particular, as will appear from the subsequent investigations.

THE ACCENT, therefore, is the standard, by which metrical composition must be guided. It has been amply discussed, in the foregoing section, and here some application will be made of those disquisitions. A syllable, that has the full accent, in German, cannot be used otherwise than long. For, that accent consists in an ascension of the voice, which, while it is in the act of rising, requires a greater length of time for the complete emission of the sound, than is necessary in a syllable that is not elevated above its level. In words of two, or three syllables, one syllable must inevitably be long, because one must necessarily bear the full accent. Of those syllables, which have not that accent, some are endowed with the demi-accent, and others are accentless.

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* It would be exceedingly faulty to accentuate any word in a manner different from the universal custom; to read, for instance, metaphor, *metáphor*; philosopher, *philosóphor*: diametrically, *diametrically*; again, *ágain*; below, *bélow*; liberty, *líberty*; library, *líbrary*; minstrelsy, *minstrélsy*.

The latter are in their nature short; those that are half accented, or that have the demi-accent, being between the full length, and shortness, must be regarded as ambiguous, or common, half inclining to length, and half to brevity; and, consequently, as fit to be used in either capacity, as occasion may demand. As to the accentless syllables, or those that are properly short, it might perhaps be recommended, as a metrical accuracy, to all who write verse, never to employ them with the quality of length: but even the best poets transgress this line of correctness. They use those syllables long, without much scruple, when the necessity of the verse requires it*. But *this* limitation must be observed, that by transforming a short syllable into length, the full accent of the word must not be destroyed: if that suffer, the fault is unpardonable. Monosyllables cannot have the full, but must have the demi-accent: for the former consists in a comparative elevation of voice, in one syllable, over the tone of another, which comparison cannot be instituted, when there is only one syllable by itself. Nor can they possibly be accentless; because it is necessary to pronounce them distinctly, and, in a manner, sonorously, to render them intelligible: and where the vowels in any syllable are thus heard, that syllable is said to be half-

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* It is not difficult to meet with examples. The prefix ge, in the preterite participles, is accentless, and entirely short; but you will see it with a long quantity in Voss's Translation of Homer's Odyssee, 12th Book, v. 124, angestrengt; 266, gelangte.

accented, or to have the demi-accent. Now the demi-accent has, in prosody, a quantity between long and short, or in other terms, is common: monosyllables, therefore, are common, that is to say, may be used either as long, or short. Two or three of them may be read together, as in one word, and the stress of declamation may assign to one the full accent, or main tone, which then becomes long in quantity, in comparison to the others. This is the *oratorial*, or *declamatory accent*, which is at the will, and depends entirely upon the feeling, of the writer, or speaker. It determines the tone in syllables of ambiguous quantity, bestowing length of sound wherever it falls though it does not necessarily follow, that this accent should be exerted, whenever there is occasion to make a common syllable long. It is seldom practicable to fix the full accent, in words of four syllables, or more. When pronounced, such words sound, as if they were divided into parts, and the accent established according to these divisions. In fact, it appears, as if there were no full accent: and the absence of this leaves the syllables in a state of ambiguity. I am, therefore, inclined to say, that the syllables in words, which contain four or more, are common, that is, liable to be employed with the quantity of length, or shortness, as it may suit the purpose of the poet.

The accent according to what has been stated, is to be regarded as the source of quantity; nor can it be conceded, as some would assert, that the latter is independent of the former. With the accent, in our acceptation, is not to be confounded that distinctness, or acuteness of

voice, with which, from some impulse of feeling, or meaning, the sound of a syllable may happen to be emitted. If in this example: Gerechter Gott, allgütig sind deine Wege, the syllables ge and all should be heard with something like an emphasis, this is not to be taken for the accent, which, as the 4th Section has abundantly proved, rests upon a very different foundation.

The following rules for quantity, in German prosody, are the result of the preceding observations.

I. In words of two or three syllables, that syllable is long, which bears the full accent*.

II. In words of four syllables, or more, the full accent can seldom be distinctly fixed; but there generally remains a sort of equilibrium between the syllables, which seems to render them common. As such they may be often regarded, and employed at the will of the poet. Certain compound words retain, in a great degree, the stress of tone, which one or the other of the component parts had before the composition: and they are to be looked upon as exceptions from this rule of common quantity. For example, Allgütiger, composed of all and gütiger, has a prevailing accent upon the second, which could not possibly be equalised with the quantity of the preceding, or subsequent syllables.

III. Monosyllables are common. They are all parti-

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* Concerning the accent, the 4th section of this chapter must be referred to. Here, p. 84, 87, 90.

cularly liable to be affected by the oratorial, or arbitrary accent.

IV. Syllables that are half-accented, or, which is the same, have the demi-accent,* are common.

V. Accentless syllables, that is to say, those, which never admit an accent,† ought always to preserve a short quantity. But so far does the established freedom of the poets extend, that even those syllables are not unfrequently used as long.

The German language is capable of producing all the metrical feet, and consequently all the species of versification, which were known to the ancients. It is suited to hexameter, and pentameter;‡ and avails itself of a variety of measures, in lyrical compositions.§ I speak here of verse, without rhyme; though this auxiliary of modern poesy is likewise current, and as much in practice, as in any other tongue of Europe.

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* See Sect. IV, p. 92.

† See Sect. IV, p. 94.

‡ The English language revolts at these metres. In German, some of the most excellent poems have been composed in them. Klopstock's Messiah, Stolberg's and Voss's translations of Homer, are written in hexameter. Herder and others have successfully made use of the pentameter.

§ See, for instance, the odes of Klopstock.

A word of two syllables must, in German, according to the accent, furnish either a trochee ¯˘, or an iambick ˘¯. If the accent be on the first, it will be a trochee; if on the second, an iambick. But as one of the syllables must, of necessity, have a paramount accent, they cannot both have the same quantity. A dissyllabick word can, therefore, not naturally form either a sponde ¯¯,* or a pyrrhich ˘˘. However, by the assistance of monosyllables, these feet may be easily accomplished. A word of three syllables may make either a dactyl ¯˘˘, which is most common; or an anapæst ˘˘¯, or an amphibrachys ˘¯˘: but from the constitution of the German accent, it will not so readily yield a creticus, or amphimacer ¯¯¯; though, if the last syllable happen to be half-accentuated, it would be practicable. It would be difficult to shape it to a bacchius ˘¯¯, or an antibacchius ¯¯˘; and impossible to turn it into a molossus ¯¯¯, or a tribrachys ˘˘˘. When those feet are wanted, they must be made by a combination of different words Thus the feet of four syllables are likewise to be produced; for of words, which have that extent themselves, there is not a great number. Among the tetrasyllabick feet, the choriambick ¯˘˘¯ is most familiar to the German language; and it is also the most pleasing. It is, frequently, effected by a con-

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* The illustrious Klopstock has celebrated this peculiarity of the German language, in his Ode to Sponda, a nymph, whose absence, or concealment, the poet laments.

currence of dissyllabick words, and occasionally, by words of four, or five syllables. The dijambus ⏑⏑⏑⏑, ditrochæus ⏑⏑⏑⏑, antispast ⏑⏑⏑⏑, may also be had, by an association of syllables, which the language, without much difficulty, is able to furnish.

In this manner, the substance of the German Prosody has been stated: but I deem it necessary, before I quit this topick, to take notice of a theory, more artificial than ours, which has been set up by an ingenious author.* As the principles of his system are entirely different from those, which we have adopted, our doctrine would lose much of its validity, unless we were able to show, that any other, at variance with it, could not, upon examination, maintain its ground. The writer, to whom I allude, gives the result of his notions, in nearly the following words:† "The length and shortness of syllables, in the German language, is not determined by the number and quality of the letters, or individual sounds, of which they consist; but by their prosodical value, as parts of speech, of more or less significancy; consequently, the rules of prosody, in that language, can only be drawn from a grammatical knowledge of the parts of speech, and their respective subordinacy, according to the weight, and importance, of their signification."

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* Mr. Moriz. The title of the work, in which it is developed, is: Versuch einer Deutschen Prosodie, von Karl Moriz, Berlin, 1786, that is, *An Attempt at a German Prosody, by Charles Moriz.*

† P. 246.

The foundation on which that edifice is reared, is a gradation of the parts of speech, according to their sense and meaning, with which their prosodical quantity is said to correspond. This doctrine, if admitted, can only be applicable to monosyllabick words; for in those, which contain more syllables, accent and quantity are established on another basis. So it seems to be understood by our author: and he, therefore, appears to narrow his sphere, by confining the operation of his principle, in the passage adduced, only to one class of words. It is true, that he had previously spoken of words, containing more syllables than one, and assigned the long quantity, or the prosodical accent, to what he styles the significant syllables; but his hypothesis, relative to the parts of speech, can only embrace monosyllables. From being thus contracted, it must, at first view, appear inadequate, and imperfect. But we will enter into a more accurate inquiry, concerning its merits. The parts of speech are thus arranged:* *Substantive, Adjective, Verb, Interjection, Adverb, Auxiliary verb, Conjunction, Pronoun, Preposition, Article.* According to the order, in which they are here drawn up, they are to be considered, in prosody, as of the 1st, 2nd 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th rank; the following always yielding, in potency, to the preceding. The substantive, therefore, invariably surpasses, in quantity, any other

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* Moriz, Prosody, p. 185. Read also from p. 185 to 148; and 213, with the following pages.

part of speech: it is long, while the adjective, verb, and the rest, compared to it, are short. The same pre-eminence the adjective maintains over those behind it; the interjection likewise, and so forth, every one rising, in importance, over that which it precedes, and yielding to that which it follows; till at last, the article concludes the train, and like the 5th class of citizens, or the *capite censi*, at Rome, only exists, to show, by its inferiority, the superior qualification of its neighbours.*

The whole of this system is founded upon an arbitrary assumption, and the imagination of the author; it has otherwise no claim to approbation. The declamatory accent may perhaps be alleged in its support: and it may be argued that, as the prosodick quantity of monosyllables is at the will of the poet, he may be influenced, by the sense and import of the words, in assigning their accent; and thus be induced to determine their length, or brevity. The words themselves, it may be added, will, in some degree, be calculated, according to the idea annexed to them, to attract the oratorial, or declamatory accent, and by its operation, acquire, in a certain order, their respective quantity. But it is to be observed, as has been before intimated, that there is not always a necessity for employing that accent. The verse may proceed, even and unretarded, without such an impulse; and the poet may find it suitable to manage the energies of his strains, without any regard, or even in direct op-

* See Moriz, p. 186, 187.

position, to a similar theory. Indeed, if it be not intended to annihilate the principles, upon which German versification, from its first origin, has been conducted, and to subvert that usage, which has been sanctioned by the consent of anterior times, we must withhold our concurrence from what is proposed. Were we to compare the rules, which are contained in the system alluded to, with the poetry that exists, we should, most frequently, find them inapplicable. It is, without doubt, feasible, in some species of verse, to replace one foot, or one quantity, by another: and to this expedient our author is not rarely compelled to resort, in order to vindicate his opinions. But if it were possible, in every such instance, to consult the poet himself, respecting what he intended, I apprehend, it would appear, that these modifications, and changes were often unjustifiable, and groundless. The most unerring test would be to examine those rules by such metres, as would allow no variation of quantity; for which purpose none seem to be so well qualified as some, used by the ancients, particularly the hexameter, and pentameter. In these, the feet are accurately determined, and the quantity cannot be mistaken.

But I think, it is practicable to derive convincing evidence, against our author, from his own pages. In the 218th, a quotation from Klopstock is introduced, in which the words, hebt ihn, are used as a spondee ‒‒. This is perfectly consistent with the rules of our prosody: but how can it be reconciled to the principles of the other system? Hebt, is a verb; ihn, a pronoun, which is much

inferior, in dignity, to the verb, and when next to it, should be used, according to that theory, as a short syllable; consequently, hebt ihn should make a trochee ¯˘. But the poet knew of no such system, nor felt himself under any restriction.

P. 226. In this line of Ramler,

Liebe, die du Götter oft um Schäfer tauschest,

which is trochaical ¯˘, our author sets down the second foot, die du, for a pyrrich ˘˘, because, says he, the words, of which it consists, are both pronouns, and happen, both to stand in the fall of the verse (of which we shall speak presently); for which reasons, they must both be of the same quantity, and short. This is certainly a summary mode of proceeding; but would the poet agree to it, or has he no right to state, that, on a different principle, he had considered that foot as a trochee?

P. 154. Wenn er einst kommen wird. Great pains are taken to illustrate the respective power of the parts of speech, in this example. But it is contending with a phantom. Supposing that line to be a verse, the three monosyllables might either be employed as a dactyl, Wenn er einst ¯˘˘, kommen wird ¯˘˘; or if the iambick measure were required, they would also conform to this, Wenn er ˘¯, einst kom ˘¯, men wird ˘¯. This is consonant with the existing prosody: for monosyllables are common in quantity, which may be seen in the following instances. P. 183. Du und ich. Reading these three words together, they sound like a dactyl ¯˘˘, the conjunction und, after the

personal pronoun du, being used short. The same conjunction, before another personal pronoun, has the appearance of being long, if we read the following words as trochees, und er sprach zu mir, ¯˘, ¯˘, ¯˘. But the words, und er sprach, might also stand for an anapæst ˘˘¯, and the conjunction be again short. Would any poet be blamed for employing them, in either of these measures? P. 178. Bist du es nicht, This may be a choriambick ¯˘˘¯, or a double iambick ˘¯˘¯. Will any impartial and competent judge deny it? But if it be admitted, what becomes of the new system? Du bist, is, by means of the declamatory accent, generally pronounced as an iambick ˘¯. But in the example p. 176: Du bist meine Zuversicht und Stärke, that accent being changed, those words are, even by our author's confession, transformed into a trochee ¯˘. The quantity of monosyllables not only accommodates itself to the declamatory accent, but to the will of the poet, in general. P. 191, it is maintained, that, in a passage from Uz, the words Flieg' ich, and Fällt auf, cannot be iambic, because the pronoun ich cannot be long, by the side of flieg', which is a verb, nor the preposition auf, with fällt, which is likewise a verb. But for this assertion we have no ground, excepting the presumed validity of the theory, now under examination.

P. 229. Du dessen Augen flossen. Though this verse is iambick ˘¯˘¯˘¯, the first foot is declared to be a spondee, Du des ¯¯: for, one pronoun, it is said, ought not to be short against another pronoun. Thus p. 229, Die welche dich gebar, in which, Die wel is considered as a spondee, for the same reason. But where do we meet with these

laws? I believe only in the treatise, of which we have been speaking.

I have now to advert to what our author terms the *rise and fall* of syllables. When a syllable is made short, in a verse, by the influence of one longer, which precedes, that syllable is said to fall: when long, in consequence of a shorter one being before it, it is said to rise*. A syllable, which is not of itself long, may be prevented from falling into absolute brevity, by one following, which is shorter: it is, as it were, supported by the latter. In the prosody of all languages, there are different degrees of length and shortness†: so that one syllable, which is short, may appear long, by standing next to another, which is shorter; and that, which is long, may seem to be short, when compared to one, which is still longer. Of this relative quantity of syllables, which are brought into contact, German prosody avails itself for the exigencies of metre, with an extensive latitude: and this is easy to be conceived, when we recollect the nature of quantity, in that language. So far, what is said concerning the rising and falling of the syllables, may be allowed to be right; but when it is connected with the favourite notion, of syllables significant and insignifi-

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* See Moriz, from p. 212 to 215, and p. 219, 220, 226.

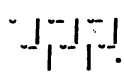
† This has been long ago observed by Dionysius Halicarnassensis, who in his treatise περὶ συνθέσεως ὀνομάτων (Vol. V. p. 87, ed. Reiske) says, that one short syllable may exceed another short syllable, in shortness.

cant, and with the peculiar arrangement, which our author makes of the parts of speech, our ascent to the truth of his proposition must remain limited.

That amelioration, and a proper degree of refinement, may be introduced into versification, as well as into any other species of human art, we do not mean to deny: but a total change of what exists, an overthrow of what has been long and firmly established, in short, an entire innovation of principle, is not to be mistaken for improvement. It is to this that we object: it is on this ground chiefly, that we have opposed Mr. M.'s system. We would willingly agree with him in any suggestion, that, without sapping the foundation, on which German prosody has always stood, would contribute to the beauty, and perfection, of measure and harmony; but we ought to go no farther. For example, his observation, p. 208, that it adds to the sweetness and fluency of verse, when a final syllable, which is used short, and ends in a consonant is followed by one beginning with a vowel, is unexceptionable. Thus Himmel auf Erden, runs along more smoothly, than Wechsel des Schicksals, though, in both, the syllable el is equally short. This is more strongly perceptible, when a final syllable, with the demi-accent, is to be used short, and is followed by a consonant. The words, Freiheit der Seele; Rettung des Lebens, being read like dactyls and trochees ⏑⏑, ⏑; ⏑⏑, ⏑, with the ambiguous syllables, heit and ung, short, and consonants following after them, fall more heavily upon the ear, and disengage themselves with more difficulty, than these: Reichthum und Ehre, Freundschaft im Tode; in which the syl-

lables thum und schaft, though of the same nature with heit and ung, pass off easily, and without impediment, because they light upon vowels. Such niceties, and elegancies, may, with great justice, be recommended to the attention of those who write verse, though they are not to be enforced by law and rule.

It remains now, that I should add a specimen of poetry, to which the foregoing remarks may be applied: for which purpose I have chosen an Ode of Klopstock*, in rhymeless metre. It consists of iambicks, alternately of 4 and 3 feet.



Heinrich der Vogler.

Der Feind ist da! Die Schlacht beginnt!
Wohlauf zum Sieg' herbey!
Es führet uns der beste Mann
Im ganzen Vaterland!

Heut fühlet er die Krankheit nicht,
Dort tragen sie ihn her!
Heil, Heinrich! heil dir, Held und Mann,
Im eisernen (1) Gefild!

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* Klopstock's Works, Vol. I. p. 75. Leipzig edition, 1798, 8vo.

(1) *en* is an accentless syllable, one that is naturally

Sein Antlitz glüht vor Ehrbegier,
Und herrscht den Sieg herbey!
Schon ist um ihn der Edlen Helm
Mit Feindesblut bespritzt.

Streu (2) furchtbar Strahlen um dich her,
Schwert (3) in des Kaisers Hand,
Daß alles tödtliche (4) Geschoß
Den Weg vorübergeh!

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short; yet it is here used long, by that licence, to which, as has been mentioned, the poets have recourse, without scruple.

(2) *Streu*, a verb, short before *furchtbar*, an adverb; which is a violation of Moriz's theory: for the verb ranks above the adverb, and, therefore, should be long, when standing with the latter. What is to be done? Are we to read the first foot as a sponde ¯¯, instead of an iambick ˘¯? This, I think, would be recommended by Mr. M. But did the poet intend it so?

(3) *Schwert in* ˘¯, a deviation from that system, still more alarming! The substantive, the prince of the parts of speech, short before the preposition, one of the lower plebeians! Impossible! Yet so it seems. Better destroy the metre, and read *Schwert in des* ¯˘¯, as a dactyl, or at least ¯˘, as a trochee. But has the poet acknowledged your laws, and authorized you to do so?

(4) *e*, a most accentless syllable, is employed here with a long quantity.

Willkommen Tod fürs Vaterland!
Wenn unser sinkend Haupt
Schon Blut bedeckt, dann sterben wir
Mit Ruhm fürs Vaterland!

Wenn (5) vor uns wird ein ofnes Feld
Und (6) wir nur Todte sehn
Weit (7) um uns her, dann siegen wir
Mit Ruhm fürs Vaterland!

Dann treten wir mit hohem Schritt
Auf Leichnamen (8) daher!
Dann jauchzen wir im Siegsgeschrey!
Das geht durch Mark und Bein!

Uns preist, mit frohem Ungestüm,
Der Bräut'gam und die Braut;
Er sieht die hohen Fahnen wehn,
Und drückt ihr sanft die Hand.

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(5) *Wenn vor* ⏑⏑, a conjunction short before a preposition, which is against M.'s system. Query, ought it to be read ⏑⏑? Ask the poet.

(6) *Und wir* ⏑⏑, a conjunction short before a pronoun, a similar irregularity with the preceding one.

(7) *Weit um* ⏑⏑, an adverb short before a preposition! A difficulty even greater, than the two former ones.

(8) *en*, an accentless syllable, long: that, which precedes it, *nam*, has the demi-accent, and is here used short.

Und spricht zu ihr: Da kommen sie,
Die Kriegesgötter, her!
Sie stritten in der heißen Schlacht
Auch für uns beide mit.

Uns preist, der Freudenthränen voll,
Die Mutter, und ihr Kind!
Sie drückt den Knaben an ihr Herz,
Und sieht dem Kaiser nach.

Uns folgt ein Ruhm, der ewig bleibt,
Wenn wir gestorben sind,
Gestorben für das Vaterland
Den ehrenvollen Tod!

CHAPTER II.

ON THE NOUN.

Containing:

1. *The Article.*
2. *The Gender.*
3. *The Declension of Substantives.*
4. *The Declension of Adjectives.*
5. *The Comparison of Adjectives.*
6. *The Numerals,*

SECTION I.

THE ARTICLE.

THERE are two articles in the German language, as in the English, the *definite*, which answers to the English *the*, (the man); and the *indefinite*, answering to *a* or *an*, (a house, an oak).

The English articles are not declined; but the German are varied, in their terminations, by four cases, the nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative.

The definite article has two numbers, the singular and the plural. The indefinite can, from its nature, only have the singular number.

In the singular, both the articles have distinct endings, for the three genders of grammar, the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter. In the plural of the definite, one termination serves for all.

DEFINITIVE ARTICLE.

Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nominative.	Der,	Die,	Das,	the (man).
Genitive.	Des,	Der,	Des,	of the.
Dative.	Dem,	Der,	Dem,	to the.
Accusative.	Den,	Die,	Das,	the.

Plural.

Nom.	Die,	the.
Gen.	Der,	of the.
Dat.	Den,	to the.
Acc.	Die,	the.

} for all Genders.

INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Ein,	Eine,	Ein,	a (man).
Gen.	Eines,	Einer,	Eines,	of a.
Dat.	Einem,	Einer,	Einem,	to a.
Acc.	Einen,	Eine,	Ein.	

No plural.

SECTION II.

THE GENDER.

The Nouns Substantive are distinguished by three genders, the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter: each of which, as has been stated in the foregoing section, has, in the singular number, its appropriate article. We can, therefore, not join a substantive with an article; nor, as afterwards will appear, with an adjective, or a pronoun, unless we are certain of its gender. It serves besides, as will be seen, as a criterion for the declension. For these reasons, it seems to be proper, previously to discuss that subject, before we speak of the substantives, the adjectives, and pronouns.

It is an unfortunate circumstance, that this part of Grammar, which is so important and necessary, for correctness of speech, should be so little encompassed by general laws, as it actually is, in the German language. The rules are very few, while the exceptions, and irregularities, are exceedingly numerous. Of most words the gender is only to be acquired by individual experience, and it is, therefore, to be recommended to the foreigner, that, whenever he learns any new substantive, he should be anxious, at the same time, accurately to impress upon his mind the proper article, belonging to it.

A. *Of the Masculine Gender*, are:

1. All male names and appellations: as, der Mann, the man; der Vater, the father; der König, the king, &c. Except diminutives, which are neuters; and some compound words, in which the last component is of a different gender*; as, die Mannsperson, and das Mannsbild, both denoting *a man;* from die Person, the person, feminine, and das Bild, the figure, neuter.

2. The name of God; the names of angels, and demons,—as, der Engel, the angel, der Teufel, the devil; of winds,—as, der Nordwind, the north wind, der Südwind, the south wind; of seasons,—as, der Frühling, the spring, der Sommer, the summer; of months, and days, —as, der Januar, January, der Februar, February, der Montag, Monday, der Dienstag, Tuesday. Das Jahr, the year, is neuter, whence das Frühjahr, a synonymous term for spring, is also neuter; and die Jahrszeit, the season, feminine.

3. The names of stones: as, der Kies, the flint; der Diamant, or Demant, the diamond; der Smaragd, the emerald; der Onyx, the onyx; der Saphir, the sapphire; der Rubin, the ruby.

4. All words ending in *ing* and *ling*: except das

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* See additional remarks on the gender.

Ding, the thing; das Messing, brass (by some, however, called der Messing).

5. Most substantives ending in *er*. Except, among others, the following: Das Messer, the knife; das Ruder, the oar; die Folter, the rack; an engine of torture; die Halfter, the halter, a cord, or strap, to tie up horses; die Feder, the pen; die Kelter, the wine-press; die Klammer, a hook for holding things together, cramp; die Klapper, the rattle, an instrument; die Leiter, the ladder; die Schleuder, a sling to throw with; die Zither, the guitar.

6. Many words ending in *en*. Exceptions numerous. *a*. The following: Das Almosen, alms; das Becken, the bason; das Eisen, the iron; das Kissen, the cushion; das Lehen, the fief; das Wapen, or Wappen, the coat of arms; das Zeichen, the sign. *b*. The infinitive moods, when turned into substantives. They are of the neuter gender: as, das Gehen, the going, or walking; das Reiten, the riding; das Essen, the eating, or the meal; das Trinken, the drinking, or drink. To which may be added, das Erdbeben, the earthquake; das Gebrechen, the failing; das Leiden, the suffering; das Vergnügen, the pleasure; das Vermögen, the power of doing a thing, also estate, or fortune; das Verhalten, the demeanour, conduct; das Vorhaben, the purpose, intention; das Wesen, the being. For these are, properly speaking, the infinitives of certain verbs. c. The diminutives in *en*, are neuters.

7. Some words beginning with the prefix *ge*, and being derivatives: as, der Gedanke, der Gefährte, der Gehülfe, der Gebrauch, der Gehalt, der Gehorsam, der Gelaß, der Genosse, der Genuß, der Geruch, der Geschmack, der Gestank, der Geselle, der Gewinn, der Gewinnst, der Gespann, der Gespiele, der Gebrauch, der Gesang, der Gevatter.

B. *Of the Feminine Gender*, are

1. All female names and appellation: as, die Frau, the women; die Mutter, the mother; die Fürstinn, the princess. Except *a*. The diminutives, which are neuters. *b*. Das Weib, the woman, or wife; das Mensch, a low, common woman. And these compounds: das Weibsbild, the female; das Frauenzimmer, a female, a lady; das Weibstück, an expression of contempt, for a woman.

2. The names of trees, fruits, and flowers, when ending in *e*: as die Eiche, the oak; die Fichte, the pine; die Buche, the beech; die Tanne, the fir; die Birne, the pear; die Pflaume, the plum; die Rose, the rose; die Nelke, the pink.

3. The names of rivers: as, die Elbe, the Elbe; die Weser, the Weser; die Donau, the Danube; die Themse, the Thames; die Tiber, the Tiber. Except the following: der Anio, der Arno, der Dnieper, der Dniester, der Don, der Douro, der Ebro, der Euphrat, der Inn, der Lech, der Main, der Minho, der Necker, der Nil, der Po, der Rhein, der Rubico, der Tejo.

All words ending in *ey* (or *ei*), *heit*, *keit*, *schaft*, and *ung*: as, die Raserey, madness; die Freiheit, freedom, liberty; die Lustbarkeit, the entertainment, party of pleasure; die Gesellschaft, company, society; die Zeitung, the tiding. Except: der Brey, the pap, pulp; das Ey, the egg; das Geschrey, the clamour; der Schaft, the wooden part of a spear, also the stock of a gun; der Sprung, the leap.

5. All substantives, ending in *e*, which are derived from adjectives: as, die Länge, the length, from lang, long; die Größe, the magnitude, size, from groß, great; die Güte, the goodness, from gut, good; die Schwere, the weight, heaviness, from schwer, heavy.

6. Many other words in *e*: as, die Scheere, the scissars: die Katze, the cat; die Krähe, the crow; die Mütze, the cap; die Weste, the waistcoat.

7. Words in *ucht*, and *unft*: as, die Bucht, the bay; die Flucht, the flight; die Frucht, the fruit; die Sucht, unreasonable zeal, or passion, mania; die Zucht, discipline, also the breeding of cattle; die Zunft, a corporation, guild; die Ankunft, the arrival.

8. Words in *muth*: as, die Armuth, poverty; die Großmuth, magnanimty—though some express them by different genders: as, das Armuth, der Großmuth. Der Hochmuth, haughtiness, is, I believe, always used as a masculine.

9. Several in *niss:* as, die Bedrängniß, distress, or, embarrassment; die Begegniß, occurrence, fate; die Besorgniß, apprehension; die Betrübniß, sorrow; die Empfängniß, conception, the act of becoming pregnant; die Erkenntniß, the knowledge; die Erlaubniß, the permission; die Ersparniß, savings, (according to some, a neuter); die Fäulniß, putridity; die Kenntniß, knowledge; die Kümmerniß, grief; die Finsterniß, the darkness; die Verdammniß, damnation; die Wildniß, the wilderness. But as many, or more, of this termination, are neuters; and in some the gender is ambiguous.

10. Some words, beginning with *ge*, being for the most part, derivatives: as, die Gebühr, the due, the fee; die Geburt, the birth; die Geduld, patience; die Gefahr, the danger; die Genüge, the state of being satisfied; die Geschichte, the history; die Geschwulst, the tumour; die Gestalt, the form, or shape; die Gewalt, the force, or power.

C. *Of the Neuter Gender*, are:

1. The letters of the alphabet: as, das A; das B.

2. The names of metals: as, das Gold, the gold; das Silber, the silver; das Kupfer, the copper. Except: die Platina, platina; der Stahl, the steel; der Tomback, the pinchbeck; der Zink, zink.

3. The names of countries and places, when the gen-

der is discernible from a word, connected with them, which may be the article, the adjective, or the pronoun* : as, das aufgeklärte Europa, enlightened Europe; das gesittete Deutschland, refined Germany; das reiche London, the rich town of London. Except: Die Schweitz, Switzerland; die Pfaltz, the Palatinate;—and those which end in *ey*: as, die Türkey, Turkey.

4. Words ending in *thum*: as, das Fürstendthum, the principality; das Christenthum, christianity, Except; der Irrthum, the errour; der Reichthum, the riches.

5. The infinitive moods, which have acquired the nature of substantives, by the article prefixed; as, das Gehen, das Reiten, das Essen, the going, the riding, the eating.

6. All parts of speech, not being substantives, when accompanied with the article, to point them out, are assigned to this gender: as, das Ich, the (word) I; das Und, the (word) and; das Grün, the (colour) green; das Schwarz, the (colour) black; das Rund der Erde, the round (*i. e.* the globe) of the earth; das Lebewohl, the farewell.

7. All diminutives are neuters: to which belongs das

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* The relative pronoun, as well as any other, must correspond with such names, in the neuter gender, for example: Venedig, welches an der See liegt, Venice which is situated on the sea coast; welches, is the neuter of the relative pronoun.

Mädchen, the girl, or maid; being the diminutive of die Magd, the maid.* (How the diminutives are formed, will be shown in the second declension.)

8. Several words beginning with *ge*: as, das Gebälk, das Gebet, das Gebiet, das Gebot, das Geblüt, das Gebiß, das Gedicht, das Gefäß, das Gefühl, das Geheiß, das Gehör, das Gelübde, das Gemach, das Gemählde, das Gemurmel, das Gemüth, das Geschöpf, das Geschoß, das Gespräch, das Gesuch.

9. Several ending in *niss*: as, das Aergerniß, das Befugniß, das Begräbniß, das Bekenntniß, das Bildniß, das Bündniß, das Einverständniß, das Erforderniß, das Geheimniß, das Gedächtniß, das Geständniß, das Gleichniß, das Hinderniß, das Mißverständniß, das Verhältniß, das Verhängniß, das Verlöbniß, das Vermächtniß, das Versäumniß, das Vergleichniß, das Verständniß, das Zeugniß.

Additional Remarks on the Gender.

1. If we investigate the origin of gender, it will appear that it is to be looked for in an assimilation of the objects, signified by words, to the animated part of creation. As in this there are two sexes, so the infant mind of man distinguished those objects by two genders. Some, to which might be attributed qualities like those, that are

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* Thus, in Greek, diminutives are often of the neuter gender, τὸ παιδίον, and the name *Glycerium.*

observed in the male sex of living beings, such as greatness, strength, activity, &c. were marked by the male, or masculine gender: others, in which properties, opposite to the former, such as inferior size, comparative weakness, passiveness, &c. were noticed, had the female, or feminine, gender assigned to them. Thus two divisions were made, under which nouns substantive might be classed. Several nations, and the German, among others, added a third, called the neuter gender; comprehending words, that did not exactly coincide with the characteristicks of the two former. It contained, for instance, those with which the comparison of the male and female sex could not well be associated. Of this kind are, in German, the names of some animals, of which the male and female are discriminated, by appropriate denominations. For example, das Pferd, the horse, is of the neuter gender, being the appellative, for the equine species, of which the male is called der Hengst, the stallion, and the female die Stute, the mare. Thus das Rind, denoting the bovine kind, has the same gender: the male being termed der Stier, or der Bulle, the bull, and the female die Kuh, the cow. Likewise das Schwein, the swine —der Eber, or der Kempe the boar; die Sau, the sow: das Huhn, the fowl—der Hahn, the cock; die Henne, the hen. There is a similar appellative for human species, viz. der Mensch, Lat. homo: the subdivisions are, der Mann, the man; die Frau, the woman. This, however, as appears from the article, is not of the neuter, but of the masculine gender; which seems to be a pre-eminence, given to it, above the brute creation. We may, upon

this occasion, remark a singularity in the word, das Weib, a woman, which is a neuter. I conjecture, that it was introduced into the language, subsequent to another word of the same signification; and that, for this reason, it was not received in the class of feminines, its place being already occupied: or a particular idea might, originally, be annexed to it, for which it was deemed unworthy of that gender. As those words, of which we have been speaking, were referred to the neuter gender, because a comparison of sex was not combined with them, so the following belong to the same, as general names; the male, and female sex being expressed by subordinate appellations. Das Kind, the child, signifying the offspring of the human species, without implying the sex; das Lamm, the lamb; das Füllen, the foal; das Kalb, the calf; das Ferkel, a young pig; das Küchen, a chicken, or young fowl. In all these words, no regard is had to sex, and, therefore, they are of the neuter gender.

The diminutives are neuters, without any exception, The notion upon which this circumstance is founded, seems to be, that as the diminutives are not quite the same as their primitives, whether masculine, or feminine, but differ in their qualities, by being smaller, a different gender is allotted to them.

Abstract terms cannot easily be made to square with the idea of sex. In consequence of this, they are ascribed to the neuter gender: as, das Gehen, the going; das Reiten, the riding.

Those notions were partly modified, and partly set aside, when language became more cultivated, and the

human mind more enlarged. We must, however, have recourse to them, if we wish to unravel, in some degree, the intricacies, with which this subject is accompanied.

II. The gender, we have said, had its source in considering all objects as animate, and in personifying them, according to the sexes, existing in creation. But it does not thence follow, the different individuals, or different nations, should associate the same idea with the same objection, or personify it in the same manner. My imagination may represent to me, as most striking, such properties, in the object, as qualify it for one sex; while the perception of my neighbour may be attracted by those characteristicks which induce him to refer it to the other. The grammatical genders will, consequently, be different. This observation will tend to solve some problems, in the German tongue, which otherwise would be difficult to explain.

The Sun, for instance, is, in most languages, of the masculine: and *the Moon* of the feminine gender. In the German, it is the reverse: die Sonne, the sun, is feminine; and der Mond, the moon, masculine. How is this to be accounted for It would be unsatisfactory to say, that it is accidental, and that no reason can be given for so strange an anomaly. The fact seems to be this: most nations personify the Sun as a male, and the Moon as a female being; but the Germans have inverted it, according to the manner in which they, originally, conceived, or imagined, the object. A peculiarity of the

same kind appears in the names of rivers. The greatest number of them is, in German, of the feminine gender; and why? because the imagination represented them as female beings. The German language, therefore, would suggest Goddesses of rivers, where the Greek, Roman, and others exhibited Gods. In these, we may hear of *Father Tiber, Father Thames*, while in the former it would be proper to say, *Alma Mater, Mother Tiber*, and *Mother Thames*.—This might perhaps be farther illustrated, by an enquiry into the early history of the German nation, and their customs, but it is not here the place for such a digression.

III. It has been stated, concerning the names of animals, that were there is an appellative for the species, besides the sexual denomination of the individuals, that appellative is always of the neuter gender. But, when there is no such appellation, the species takes the name of one of the individual sexes; that is to say, either of the masculine, or of the feminine gender. This seems to be regulated on the principles alluded to: namely, where the idea of strength, superior size, and the like, may be attached, it is the masculine; and on the other hand, where comparative weakness, smallness, or delicacy of body, is intimated, it is the feminine gender. Thus, when a dog and a cat are compared, the former will deserve the masculine, and the latter the feminine gender; and a hawk and a pigeon, the first should be the masculine, and the second the feminine. This com-

parison is not to be traced in every instance, but it seems, nevertheless, to be the basis, upon which the gender is founded, in words of a similar nature.

The name of the species thus includes, at the same time, one of the two sexes; the other must then be distinguished by a particular ending, or by the addition of a characteristick term, such as of birds, der Hahn, the cock, die Henne, the hen; or of all animals, birds and quadrupeds, das Männchen, the male; das Weibchen, the female; and the adjectives männlich, weiblich, male, female.

With respect to the endings, which denote the sexes, it is *inn* for the feminine, when the masculine constitutes the name of the species. That termination answers to the English *ess*. Examples: der Löwe, the lion—die Löwinn, the lioness; der Hund, the dog—die Hündinn, the female dog; der Wolf, the wolf—die Wölfinn, the she-wolf; der Esel, the ass—die Eselinn, the she-ass. In some, however, it is not usual, as in der Fuchs, the fox; der Hase, the hare; der Bär, the bear: in which it is not common to say, die Füchsinn, die Hasinn, die Bärinn. Consequently, the terms, above mentioned, Männchen, Weibchen männlich, weiblich, or similar words of discrimination, must be called in aid.—If the feminine gender serve for the appellation of the species, the male sex assumes the termination *er*, or *rich*: as, die Taube, the dove, or pigeon—der Tauber, or Täuber, the male; die Gans, the goose—der Ganser, or Gänserich, the gander; die Ente, the duck—der Enter, or Enterich, the drake; die Katze, (old die Kat) the cat—der Kater, the he-cat.

IV. From the above, the termination *inn** has been transferred to certain attributes, and titles, (and occasionally, even to proper names), to denote the feminine gender. Examples: Der König, the king—die Königinn, the queen; der Herzog, the duke—die Herzoginn, the duchess; der Fürst, the prince—die Fürstinn, the princess; der Prinz, the son of a sovereign, the prince—die Princessinn, the daughter of a sovereign, the princess; der Schäfer, the shepherd—die Schäferinn, the shepherdess. As it is the custom, in Germany, for the wife to share the title of her husband, the ending *inn* is adapted to that purpose: for instance, der Doctor, the doctor—die Doctorinn, the Doctor's wife; der Professor, the professor—die Professorinn, the professor's wife; der Rath, the counsellor—die Räthinn, the counsellor's wife. In addressing the gentlemen, one would say, Herr Doctor, Herr Professor, Herr Rath, Mr. Doctor, Mr. Professor, Mr. Counsellor; and the ladies,

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* I have to remark, that some writers have preferred to express it by *in*, without doubling the letter *n*. Wieland and other respectable names, are among the number. But *inn* has the most ancient usage in its favour, and is likewise supported by recent authorities of distinction. Lessing, Nicolai, Adelung, (see the Orthography of the latter, p. 72.) and others, protect it. It may be noticed, that this termination affects the vowel in the masculine, if it be a word of one syllable, by changing it for the feminine, into its corresponding diphthong; as, Wolf, Wölfinn; Hund, Hündinn; Rath, Räthinn.

Frau Doctorinn, Frau Professorinn, Frau Räthinn, Mrs. Doctor, Mrs. Professor, Mrs. Counsellor.

V. It may be observed, that many words have the gender of their common appellatives. For example, the names of flowers are feminine, and the word die Blume, the flower, is likewise of that gender: the names of stones are masculine, and so is der Stein, the stone, their common appellative.

VI. Compound words take the gender of their last component, if it be a substantive: as, der Kirchenrath, the ecclesiastick council; from die Kirche, the church, and der Rath, the council; das Rathhaus, the council-house, the senate-house, from der Rath, and das Haus, the house; der Maaßstab, a ruler for measuring, from das Maaß, the measure, and der Stab, the ruler; der Eichbaum, the oak-tree, from die Eiche, the oak, and der Baum, the tree; die Mannsperson, a man, from der Mann, the man, and die Person; das Mannsbild, the man, from der Mann, and das Bild; das Frauenzimmer, the female, the lady, from die Frau, and das Zimmer; das Reitpferd, the saddle-horse, from the verb reiten, to ride, and das Pferd, the horse. There are, however, some exceptions: as, das Tagelohn wages for a day's labour; das Macherlohn, wages for making any thing, such as clothes; das Druckerlohn, the printer's wages: which words are, generally, used as neuters, although the last component, der Lohn, the wages, is of the masculine gender. Yet in others, composed with the same, its gender is retained: as, der Arbeitslohn, wages

for work; der Gnadenlohn, the pension for past services; der Hüterlohn, wages of a person who watches, or guards, any thing: der Dienstlohn, wages for service. Likewise some words, compounded with der Muth, the disposition of the mind, deviate in their gender: as, die Großmuth, magnanimity; die Kleinmuth, pusillanimity; die Sanftmuth, gentleness of disposition; die Schwermuth, the melancholy; die Wehmuth, tenderness of feeling; die Demuth, humility; die Langmuth, forbearance. Others, of the same kind, do not change the gender of their primitives: as, der Hochmuth, haughtiness; der Edelmuth, nobleness of disposition; der Gleichmuth, equanimity; der Wankelmuth, a wavering disposition; der Heldenmuth, an heroick disposition; der Löwenmuth, a lion-like spirit; der Zweifelmuth, a disposition to despair.

VII. Words, assumed from foreign languages, ought to preserve the gender of their originals: as, der Canal, the canal, from the Latin *canalis*, masculine; das Sacrament, the sacrament, from the Latin *sacramentum*, neuter; die Periode, the period, from *periodus*, feminine. But this is not always regarded, as is proved by the following: Das Labyrinth, neuter, which comes from *labyrinthus*, masculine;* das Chor, the quire, derived from

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* Wieland assigns to it the masculine gender. See his Agathon, 16 B. 3 Chap. "die—das Gemüth nur in einen Labyrinth von Zweifeln führten." He probably, and I think, unobjectionably, makes Chor also a masculine.

chorus, masculine. Frequently der Zepter, or Scepter, for das Zepter, though the latter, as it is in use, should decidedly be preferred, because the word is a neuter in the Latin language, from which it is taken. Genie, genius, mental excellence, adapted from the French *le génie*, and deduced from the Latin *ingenium*, is commonly, and very properly, used in the neuter gender. Wieland makes it a masculine, probably, under the notion, that it came from the Latin *genius*: but this is evidently a mistake.

VIII. The Gender marks, in several words, a difference of signification. For example:

Der Band, signifies, the binding of a book, and a volume;
Das Band, a ligament; bond, union.
Der Bauer, the peasant;
Das Bauer, the bird cage.
Der Buckel, (or Puckel) the back, also the hump;
Die Buckel, the stud, or knob,
Der Bulle, the male of a cow;
Die Bulle, a letter published by the Pope.
Der Bund, a covenant, league, confederacy;
Das Bund, things tied together, a sheaf, bundle
Der Erbe, the heir;
Das Erbe, the inheritance.
Der Geissel, a hostage;
Die Geißel, a scourge
Der Geschoß, the tax, impost;
Das Geschoß, a missile weapon
Die Gift, the gift:
Das Gift, the poison.

Der Harz, the Hercynian forest;
Das Harz, rosin.
Der Heide, the pagan;
Die Heide, the heath.
Der Kaper, a privateer;
Die Kaper, the caper, a vegetable, *Caparis Spinosa.* Linn.
Der Kiefer, the jaw;
Die Kiefer, a sort of fir.
Der Leiter, the guide, conductor;
Die Leiter, the ladder.
Die Mandel, the almond;
Das Mandel, a number of fifteen.*
Der Mangel, the want, deficiency;
Die Mangel, a machine for pressing linen.†
Die Mark, the mark, boundary;
Das Mark, the marrow.
Der Marsch, the march;
Die Marsch, the marsh, fen.
Der Mast, the mast of a vessel;
Die Mast, the fruit of the oak and beech, and the feeding of the swine thereon.
Der Mensch, one of the human species;
Das Mensch, an opprobrious term for a female.

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* Adelung makes this word a feminine, which I think wrong. See his dictionaries, and the Vocabulary added to the Orthography.

† In some parts they call it Mandel, which mode of writing, and speaking is injudiciously preferred by Adelung.

Der Messer, he that measures;
Das Messer, the knife.
Der Mohr, a moor, a black man—also a sort of silk;
Das Mohr, the fen, bog.
Der Ort, the place;
Das Ort, a certain coin—also a certain measure.
Der Ohm, for Oheim, the uncle;
Das Ohm, a certain measure for wine.
Der Reis, the rice;
Das Reis, a twig, sprig, small branch.
Der Schild, the shield;
Das Schild, the sign of a house.
Der See, the lake;
Die See, the sea.
Der Sprosse, the shoot, sprout;
Die Sprosse, the step or round, of a ladder.
Der Stift, a piece of wire, a thin peg, or bolt;
Das Stift, an ecclesiastical establishment, ecclesiastical territory.
Der Thor, a fool, silly person;
Das Thor, the gate.
Der Zoll, the toll;
Das Zoll, an inch.

IX. There remains an uncertainty, in the gender, with regard to some words: as, der Mittwochen, or Mittwoch, Wednesday, and die Mittwoche; der Altar, the altar, and das Altar; der Gyps, plaster made of lime-chalk, and das Gyps.—It would not be worth our while to enumerate all the deviations, which may be found in the different provinces of Germany.

SECTION III.

THE DECLENSION OF SUBSTANTIVES.

The nouns substantive are most conveniently arranged under FOUR DECLENSIONS. By this division, the great advantage is obtained, of enabling the student, at the first view of any word, accompanied by its article, to refer it, immediately, to its proper mode of inflection. This is of the utmost importance, and not to be accomplished by any other method. It removes the labour of learning the declension of every substantive individually, by subjecting the whole body of them to a few plain rules.*

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* This system of the declensions is entirely my own, and I will not hesitate to say, that I regard it as one of the most important, and valuable parts of the Grammar. I succeeded in establishing it, after much reflection, having strongly felt the defectiveness of other grammars, in this particular. They furnish a certain number of declensions, more or less, from two to ten; but none of them enables you to determine, how any substantive you may meet with, is to be declined. None has arrived at fixing this criterion, which is of so much consequence, that, without it, any scheme of declension can be but of little use. By the method laid down, in the subsequent pages, all uncertainty, as to this matter, is removed: and long observation and experience have proved, how fully it answers its purpose. Some of the Criticks, by

The First Declension

contains *all the nouns substantive of the Feminine gender;* and is thus formed:

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whom the former editions of this work have been reviewed, have not been aware of the nature of the subject, on which they were passing their judgment, and have seen nothing in it but an arbitrary innovation, or the substitution of one number of declensions for another. They did not perceive, that, far from caprice, or fancy, having suggested the alteration, it was necessity, that prompted it. And if that necessity has been successfully relieved, the merit of the contrivance, by which this was effected, is not to be denied. If those persons failed to appreciate it, it must be ascribed to their ignorance, or their inattention. I have, in the second edition, mentioned a German Reviewer, who has thus exposed his failings. I do not know, whether I should advert to an objection, which has been made, that our system of declensions renders a multiplicity of exceptions necessary. These exceptions, it will be found, are not more numerous, than might be expected in the framing of any rules, in a language like the German: and though they should add to the difficulties of the learner, yet they do not diminish the great and paramount utility of the system. If, before, there were no exceptions, this is easily explained: for neither were there any rules. In a language that is

In the *Singular number*, the terminations remain unaltered.

In the *Plural*, the following additions are made to the termination of the singular, viz. of

n, throughout all the cases, if the singular end in *e*, *el*, *er*.

en, if it end in any vowel but *e*, or in any consonant, with the exception of monosyllabick words, and the terminations *el* and *er*.

e, in monosyllables, ending with a consonant, from all cases, excepting the dative, which has the termination *en*.

Note. The plurals of die Mutter, the mother, and die Tochter, the daughter, are irregular, viz. *nom. gen. acc.* die Mütter, die Töchter; *dat.* den Müttern, den Töchtern.

The Second Declension.

contains *all the Masculines* and *Neuters*, ending in *el*, *em*, *er*, (not those in *eer*, or *err*,) and the *Neuters* in *e*.

Its inflection consists in an addition of *s* to the *Genitive Singular*, and of *n* to the *Dative Plural*.—Words ending in *n*, do not require the superaddition of this letter, in the dative plural.

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much cultivated, and used, exceptions always abound. This is judiciously observed by Mr. Adelung, in his Orthography, p. 16. It is in its infancy, that a language is most regular, and most swayed by analogy.

The Third Declension

contains all those words, which end in *e*, and *st*, which are *of the Masculine gender*, and *of more than one syllable*. But besides these, some others, which are to be enumerated on a subsequent page, of different terminations, though all of the masculine gender, belong to this declension. One neuter only has found a place among them, namely, das Herz, the heart.

All the cases, both of the *Singular* and the *Plural*, with the exception of the nominative singular, are made by adding to the latter, when ending in *e*, the letter *n* and *en*, when ending in *st*, or in some other consonant. Words ending in *ar*, or *err*, are commonly declined with the termination *n* (instead of *en*), though not necessarily so. There may be occasions, when *en* may appear preferable,—Sometimes the genitive singular receives the accession of *s*, so as to terminate in *ens*.

The Fourth Declension.

contains all those *Masculines* and *Neuters*, which are not comprehended in the second, and third declensions.

In *the Singular*, the *Genitive* is made, by adding *es* to the nominative: the *Dative*, by adding *e*; and the *Accusative* is like the *Nominative*.

In the Plural, most words form their cases by an addition of *e* for the *Nominative*, *Genitive*, and *Accusative*, of *en* for the *Dative*, to the nominative singular.

Several neuters, especially those of one syllable, and a few masculines, instead of *e*, and *en*, assume the syllables *er*, and *ern*, in the cases alluded to.

Note. In the genitive singular, *s* simple is occasionally substituted for *es;* and *e*, in the dative, omitted.

General Rules.

I. The dative plural, in all declensions, terminates with the letter *n*.

II. The vowels a, o, u, and the diphthong au, of the singular number, are, in the plural of many words, changed into the diphthongs, ä, ö, ü, and äu. This applies

a. To the monosyllables of the first declension, which form the plural in *e:* as, die Hand, pl. die Hände; die Noth, pl. die Nöthe; die Frucht, pl. die Früchte; die Faust, pl. die Fäuste.

b. To several words of the second declension. See the examples, and observations, hereafter.

c. To all those nouns of the fourth, which make their plural in *er*, and to many of the same declension, which have *e* in that number. See the observations, afterwards.

III. The vocative case, in either number, is alw

plain; die Fluth, the flood; die Form, the form; die Fracht, the freight; die Gluth, a vehement fire; die Jagd, the chace; die Last, the burden; die List, the cunning, deceit; die Mark, the boundary, and a species of coin; die Pflicht, the duty; die Pracht,* the pomp; die Post, the post, post-office; die Quaal, the torment; die Schaar, the crowd, troop; die Schlacht, the battle; die Schrift, the writing; die Schuld, the debt; die Spur, the trace, track; die Stirn, the forehead; die That, the deed; die Thür, the door; die Tracht, the mode of dress; die Trift, the pasture; die Uhr, the clock, the watch; die Wahl, the choice; die Welt, the world; die Zahl, the number; die Zeit, the time; die Zier, the ornament.—All these make the plural in *en*: as, die Arten, die Birnen, die Thüren, die Uhren, &c. Several of them are, sometimes, (but improperly), written, and spoken, with an additional *e* for the termination of the singular; then they do not come under this exception: for example, Birne, Dirne, Stirne, Thüre; also Uhre, and Spure.

2. The monosyllables, in the foregoing exception, as they do not assume the termination *e*, in their plural, so they neither admit a change of the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and the diphthong *au*, which, according to the general rule, should be transformed, in the plural of monosyllables, whose singular ends in a consonant, into the diphthongs *ä*, *ö*, *ü*, and *äu*.

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* *Jerusalem*, makes this word a masculine: on what ground, I know not. See Betrachtungen über die vornehmsten Wahrheiten der Religion (Braunschw. 1785). Vol. I. 271, 256, 291, 292.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
Nom.	Die Hoffnung, the hope	N.	Die Hoffnungen, the hopes
Gen.	Der Hoffnung, of	G.	Der Hoffnungen, of
Dat.	Der Hoffnung, to	D	Den Hoffnungen, to
Acc.	Die Hoffnung, the hope	A.	Die Hoffnungen, the hopes
Nom.	Die Hand, the hand	N.	Die Hände, the hands
Gen.	Der Hand, of	G.	Der Hände, of
Dat.	Der Hand, to	D.	Den Händen, to
Acc.	Die Hand, the hand.	A.	Die Hände, the hands.
Nom.	Die Mutter, the mother	N.	Die Mütter, the mothers.
Gen.	Der Mutter, of	G.	Der Mütter, of
Dat.	Der Mutter, to	D.	Den Müttern, to
Acc.	Die Mutter, the mother.	A.	Die Mütter, the mothers

Observations.

1. Monosyllables ending in a consonant, should, according to rule, form the plural in *e;* but the following are excepted; die Art, the kind; die Bahn, the career, course; die Bay, a bay; die Birn, the pear; die Brut, the brood; die Bucht, an opening in the land, a bay: die Chur, the election; die Cur, the cure; die Dirn, the damsel; die Fahrt, the conveyance; die Flur, a field, a

plain; die Fluth, the flood; die Form, the form; die Fracht, the freight; die Gluth, a vehement fire; die Jagd, the chace; die Last, the burden; die List, the cunning, deceit; die Mark, the boundary, and a species of coin; die Pflicht, the duty; die Pracht,* the pomp; die Post, the post, post-office; die Quaal, the torment; die Schaar, the crowd, troop; die Schlacht, the battle; die Schrift, the writing; die Schuld, the debt; die Spur, the trace, track; die Stirn, the forehead; die That, the deed; die Thür, the door; die Tracht, the mode of dress; die Trift, the pasture; die Uhr, the clock, the watch; die Wahl, the choice; die Welt, the world; die Zahl, the number; die Zeit, the time; die Zier, the ornament.—All these make the plural in *en*: as, die Arten, die Birnen, die Thüren, die Uhren, &c. Several of them are, sometimes, (but improperly), written, and spoken, with an additional *e* for the termination of the singular; then they do not come under this exception: for example, Birne, Dirne, Stirne, Thüre; also Uhre, and Spure.

2. The monosyllables, in the foregoing exception, as they do not assume the termination *e*, in their plural, so they neither admit a change of the vowels a, o, u, and the diphthong au, which, according to the general rule, should be transformed, in the plural of monosyllables, whose singular ends in a consonant, into the diphthongs ä, ö, ü, and äu.

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* *Jerusalem*, makes this word a masculine: on what ground, I know not. See Betrachtungen über die vornehmsten Wahrheiten der Religion (Braunschw. 1785). Vol. I. 271, 256, 291, 292.

3. The word, die Sau, a female pig, a sow, makes the plural die Säue; but when the female of a *wild* boar is understood, it is by sportsmen expressed, in the plural, die Sauen. Die Bank, signifying a bench, has *e* in the plural, die Bänke; but when it means a bank, where pecuniary concerns are transacted, it takes *en*, die Banken.

4. Some compound words, of two syllables, form the plural in *e*, with a change of vowels: as, die Armbrust, the cross-bow; die Abkunft, descent, origin; die Auskunft, information, intelligence—plur. Armbrüste, Abkünfte, Auskünfte. The reason is that they are composed of monosyllables.

5. It seems, that formerly the termination *en* was given to the singular number, in the declension of feminines. For we still find vestiges of it, in common discourse, and even in some phrases, adopted by the best authorities. Under this description come the following: Auf Erden, on earth, for auf der Erde; zu Ehren, in honour of; von Seiten, on the part of; vor Freuden, for joy; zu Schanden werden, to fall into dishonour, or disgrace, to be disgracefully disappointed. That termination may be said to supply the place of the article; which power it has in proper names, as will afterwards be shown. It may be discerned in some compound words, where the article is suppressed on account of the composition, but would be used, if the composition, were dissolved, and the components reduced to their simple state: for example, der Ehrenschänder, the destroyer of honour: das Freudenfest, the jubilee; die Höllenfahrt, the descent into

hell—instead of der Schänder *der* Ehre, das Fest *der* Freude, die Fahrt, (zu) *der* Hölle. Thus, Frauenbild, Frauenzimmer, Blumenstaub, ehrenrührig.

6. Some words, of the first declension, are not used in the plural number. They are, for the most part, abstract terms, and words of general import, or such, for which, from the nature of their signification, no plural is required. This subject will be more amply discussed, in the additional remarks.

7. In some compounds, the substantives belonging to the first declension, admit the general characteristick of the genitive case, which is the letter *s:* for example, Arbeitshaus, from die Arbeit; Achtserklärung, from die Acht; Geburtstag, from die Geburt; Hülfsmittel, hülfsbedürftig, from die Hülfe; Auslegungskunst, from die Auslegung.

Second Declension.

Comprehending all those nouns *of the Masculine and Neuter genders*, which end in *el, em, en, er;* and those *of the Neuter gender*, which end in *e.*

EXAMPLES.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Der Himmel, the heaven	Die Himmel, the heavens
Gen.	Des Himmels, of	Der Himmel, of
Dat.	Dem Himmel, to	Den Himmeln, to
Acc.	Den Himmel, the heaven	Die Himmel, the heavens.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. Der Busen, the bosom	Die Busen, the bosoms
Gen. Des Busens, of	Der Busen, of
Dat. Dem Busen, to	Den Busen, to
Acc. Den Busen, the bosom.	Die Busen, the bosoms.
Nom. Der Vater, the father	Die Väter, the fathers
Gen. Des Vaters, of	Der Väter, of
Dat. Dem Vater, to	Den Vätern, to
Acc. Den Vater, the father.	Die Väter, the fathers.
Nom. Das Gebirge, the mountain	Die Gebirge, the mountain
Gen. Des Gebirges, of	Der Gebirge, of
Dat. Dem Gebirge, to	Den Gebirgen, to
Acc. Das Gebirge, the mountain.	Die Gebirge, the mountains.

Observations.

1. Very few words remain with the ending *em:* for instance, der Athem, the breath; der Besem, the broom—and in these, *n* is now frequently substituted for *m.* Though *em* should be retained, the dative plur. would be *en:* for instance, dat. plur. den Besen.*

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* *Musäus,* (Völksmärchen, 5ter Th. S. 256, Wieland's edition), makes this dative plural Besemen—"mit Besemen gekehrt"—; which is quite ungrammatical

required to transform a word, ending in *ch*, or *g*, into a diminutive with *chen*, the syllable *el* must be inserted; as, das Büchelchen, das Ringelchen, from das Buch, the book; der Ring, the ring. This is done to prevent the concurrence of the same, or similar letters On that account, it is better to say Seelclein, than Seellein, from die Seele, the soul: Schnällelein, than Schnällein, from die Schnalle, the buckle; though, in these instances, *chen* should be preferred, Seelchen, Schnällchen.—All diminutives are of the neuter gender, as has been stated before. Their original signification is that of littleness, which is differently modified, assuming, in the object, sometimes the idea of prettiness, sometimes that of smallness only, and also, occasionally, that of ridicule and contempt; and in the person speaking, or writing, frequently that of fondness, or flattery.

6. Some words of the second declension, take their plural number from the third so as to end in *en:* as, der Baier, the Bavarian; der Bauer, the peasant; der Pantoffel, the slipper; der Stachel, the sting; der Vetter, a male relation, a cousin; das Auge, the eye; das Ende, the end: pl. Baiern, Bauern, Pantoffeln, Stacheln, Vettern, Augen, Enden. It would be no great offence against the language, if they were altogether, both in the singular and plural, consigned to the third declension.

Third Declension.

Containing *all the Masculines*, ending in *e* and *st (of more than one syllable); some other words of the same*

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The Second Declension.

contains *all the Masculines* and *Neuters*, ending in *el*, *em*, *er*, (not those in *eer*, or *err*,) and the *Neuters* in *e*.

Its inflection consists in an addition of *s* to the *Genitive Singular*, and of *n* to the *Dative Plural*.—Words ending in *n*, do not require the superaddition of this letter, in the dative plural.

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All the cases, both of the *Singular* and the *Plural*, with the exception of the nominative singular, are made by adding to the latter, when ending in *e*, the letter *n* and *en*, when ending in *st*, or in some other consonant. Words ending in *ar*, or *err*, are commonly declined with the termination *n* (instead of *en*), though not necessarily so. There may be occasions, when *en* may appear preferable,—Sometimes the genitive singular receives the accession of *s*, so as to terminate in *ens*.

The Fourth Declension.

contains all those *Masculines* and *Neuters*, which are not comprehended in the second, and third declensions.

In *the Singular*, the *Genitive* is made, by adding *es* to the nominative: the *Dative*, by adding *e*; and the *Accusative* is like the *Nominative*.

In the Plural, most words form their cases by an addition of *e* for the *Nominative*, *Genitive*, and *Accusative*, of *en* for the *Dative*, to the nominative singular.

Several neuters, especially those of one syllable, and a few masculines, instead of *e*, and *en*, assume the syllables *er*, and *ern*, in the cases alluded to.

Note. In the genitive singular, *s* simple is occasionally substituted for *es;* and *e*, in the dative, omitted.

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b. To several words of the second declension. See the examples, and observations, hereafter.

c. To all those nouns of the fourth, which make their plural in *er*, and to many of the same declension, which have *e* in that number. See the observations, afterwards.

III. The vocative case, in either number, is always

understood to be like the nominative. It will, therefore, not be mentioned in the following examples.

We now proceed to give specimens of the several declensions, and to enter into a detail, concerning each.

First Declension.

Comprising *all the nouns substantive of the Feminine gender.*

EXAMPLES.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
Nom.	Die Schale, the saucer	N.	Die Schalen, the saucers
Gen.	Der Schale, of the	G.	Der Schalen, of
Dat.	Der Schale, to	D.	Den Schalen, to
Acc.	Die Schale, the saucer.	A.	Die Schalen, the saucers.
Nom.	Die Feder, the pen	N.	Die Federn, the pens
Gen.	Der Feder, of	G.	Der Federn, of
Dat.	Der Feder, to	D.	Den Federn, to
Acc.	Die Feder, the pen.	A.	Die Federn, the pens.
Nom.	Die Frau, the woman	N.	Die Frauen, the women
Gen.	Der Frau, of	G.	Der Frauen, of
Dat.	Der Frau, to	D.	Den Frauen, to
Acc.	Die Frau, the woman.	A.	Die Frauen, the women.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
Nom.	Die Hoffnung, the hope	N.	Die Hoffnungen, the hopes
Gen.	Der Hoffnung, of	G.	Der Hoffnungen, of
Dat.	Der Hoffnung, to	D	Den Hoffnungen, to
Acc.	Die Hoffnung, the hope	A.	Die Hoffnungen, the hopes
Nom.	Die Hand, the hand	N.	Die Hände, the hands
Gen.	Der Hand, of	G.	Der Hände, of
Dat.	Der Hand, to	D.	Den Händen, to
Acc.	Die Hand, the hand.	A.	Die Hände, the hands.
Nom.	Die Mutter, the mother	N.	Die Mütter, the mothers.
Gen.	Der Mutter, of	G.	Der Mütter, of
Dat.	Der Mutter, to	D.	Den Müttern, to
Acc.	Die Mutter, the mother.	A.	Die Mütter, the mothers

Observations.

1. Monosyllables ending in a consonant, should, according to rule, form the plural in *e*; but the following are excepted; die Art, the kind; die Bahn, the career, course; die Bay, a bay; die Birn, the pear; die Brut, the brood; die Bucht, an opening in the land, a bay: die Chur, the election; die Cur, the cure; die Dirn, the damsel; die Fahrt, the conveyance; die Flur, a field, a

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2. The monosyllables, in the foregoing exception, as they do not assume the termination *e*, in their plural, so they neither admit a change of the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and the diphthong *au*, which, according to the general rule, should be transformed, in the plural of monosyllables, whose singular ends in a consonant, into the diphthongs *ä*, *ö*, *ü*, and *äu*.

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* *Jerusalem*, makes this word a masculine: on what ground, I know not. See Betrachtungen über die vornehmsten Wahrheiten der Religion (Braunschw. 1785). Vol. I. 271, 256, 291, 292.

3. The word, die Sau, a female pig, a sow, makes the plural die Säue; but when the female of a *wild* boar is understood, it is by sportsmen expressed, in the plural, die Sauen. Die Bank, signifying a bench, has *e* in the plural, die Bänke; but when it means a bank, where pecuniary concerns are transacted, it takes *en*, die Banken.

4. Some compound words, of two syllables, form the plural in *e*, with a change of vowels: as, die Armbrust, the cross-bow; die Abkunft, descent, origin; die Auskunft, information, intelligence—plur. Armbrüste, Abkünfte, Auskünfte. The reason is that they are composed of monosyllables.

5. It seems, that formerly the termination *en* was given to the singular number, in the declension of feminines. For we still find vestiges of it, in common discourse, and even in some phrases, adopted by the best authorities. Under this description come the following: Auf Erden, on earth, for auf der Erde; zu Ehren, in honour of; von Seiten, on the part of; vor Freuden, for joy; zu Schanden werden, to fall into dishonour, or disgrace, to be disgracefully disappointed. That termination may be said to supply the place of the article; which power it has in proper names, as will afterwards be shown. It may be discerned in some compound words, where the article is suppressed on account of the composition, but would be used, if the composition, were dissolved, and the components reduced to their simple state: for example, der Ehrenschänder, the destroyer of honour: das Freudenfest, the jubilee; die Höllenfahrt, the descent into

hell—instead of der Schänder *der* Ehre, das Fest *der* Freude, die Fahrt, (zu) *der* Hölle. Thus, Frauenbild, Frauenzimmer, Blumenstaub, ehrenrührig.

6. Some words, of the first declension, are not used in the plural number. They are, for the most part, abstract terms, and words of general import, or such, for which, from the nature of their signification, no plural is required. This subject will be more amply discussed, in the additional remarks.

7. In some compounds, the substantives belonging to the first declension, admit the general characteristick of the genitive case, which is the letter *s:* for example, Arbeitshaus, from die Arbeit; Achtserklärung, from die Acht; Geburtstag, from die Geburt; Hülfsmittel, hülfsbedürftig, from die Hülfe; Auslegungskunst, from die Auslegung.

Second Declension.

Comprehending all those nouns *of the Masculine and Neuter genders*, which end in *el, em, en, er;* and those *of the Neuter gender*, which end in *e.*

EXAMPLES.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Der Himmel, the heaven	Die Himmel, the heavens
Gen.	Des Himmels, of	Der Himmel, of
Dat.	Dem Himmel, to	Den Himmeln, to
Acc.	Den Himmel, the heaven	Die Himmel, the heavens.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. Der Busen, the bosom	Die Busen, the bosoms
Gen. Des Busens, of	Der Busen, of
Dat. Dem Busen, to	Den Busen, to
Acc. Den Busen, the bosom.	Die Busen, the bosoms.
Nom. Der Vater, the father	Die Väter, the fathers
Gen. Des Vaters, of	Der Väter, of
Dat. Dem Vater, to	Den Vätern, to
Acc. Den Vater, the father.	Die Väter, the fathers.
Nom. Das Gebirge, the mountain	Die Gebirge, the mountain
Gen. Des Gebirges, of	Der Gebirge, of
Dat. Dem Gebirge, to	Den Gebirgen, to
Acc. Das Gebirge, the mountain.	Die Gebirge, the mountains.

Observations.

1. Very few words remain with the ending *em*: for instance, der Athem, the breath; der Besem, the broom—and in these, *n* is now frequently substituted for *m*. Though *em* should be retained, the dative plur. would be *en*: for instance, dat. plur. den Besen.*

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* *Musäus*, (Völksmärchen, 5ter Th. S. 256, Wieland's edition), makes this dative plural Besemen—"mit Besemen gekehrt"—; which is quite ungrammatical

2. To this declension may be added, some compounded with the verb sein: as, das Beisein, consciousness; das Dabeisein, the state of good health. These words have no plural number. Some neuters in e, as, das Klima, the climate; das Sonn, the sun—gen. des Klimas, des Sonns. If the plural of these last words be required, as they are not of German origin, nor sufficiently germanized, it is made in a peculiar manner, namely, by the letter s, Klimas, Sonns. The same remark may be made respective to words ending in er, and ear, when they are used in German compositions.

3. Der Herr, a familiar, or rather low, appellation for a man, answering in a certain sense, to the English *fellow*, is referred to this declension. viz. singular nom. Der Herr, gen. des Herrn, dat. dem Herrn, acc. den Herrn; plur. nom. die Herrn, gen. der Herrn, dat. den Herrn, acc. die Herrn. It has been contracted from Herren; for so it is, to this day, spoken in Low German: and this accounts for its belonging to the second declension.

4. The following, in the plural number, change the vowels a, o, u, into the diphthongs ä, ö, ü. *(a)* Some which end in el: der Apfel, the apple; der Hammel, a castrated sheep; der Handel, an affair, a concern; der Mangel, the deficiency; der Mantel, the mantle; der Nabel, the navel: der Sattel, the saddle: der Schnabel, the beak; der Vogel, the bird. *(b)* Some which end in en: der Faden, the thread; der Graben, the ditch; der Garten, the garden; der Hafen, the haven, harbour: der Laden, the shop, (but when it means the shutter of a window,

the vowel is not altered). *(c)* Some which end in *er:* Der Acker, a field, or an acre; der Hammer, the hammer; der Pachter, the farmer, (though this word is also written, in the singular, Pächter); der Schwager, the sister's husband, the brother-in-law; der Vater, the father; der Bruder, the brother. These have in the plural, Sättel, Vögel, Gärten, Brüder, &c.

5. All diminutives belong to this declension.—Any substantive may be formed into a diminutive, by the termination *chen* being added: for instance, das Väterchen, das Brüderchen, from Vater, Bruder. The vowels a, o, u, and the diphthong au, are, generally, converted into ä, ö, ü, äu, as appears from the examples, just mentioned. Thus das Söhnchen, from Sohn, the son; das Bäumchen, from der Baum, the tree. In the Upper German idiom, the syllable *lein* serves for the purpose of making diminutives: as, das Männlein, from der Mann, the man; das Fräulein, from die Frau, the woman; das Büchlein, from das Buch, the book. In the High German, *chen* predominates: yet *lein* is adopted, when the other appears too colloquial; for example, in poetry. It also remains in particular words: as, das Fräulein, which is the title of a young lady of noble extraction; das Müthlein, denoing a revengeful disposition; das Büchlein, a book of small compass.—When a word, ending in *e, el, en,* is to receive the diminutive termination of *lein,* the letters *e, en,* and *l,* are commonly left out: as, das Knäblein, from der Knabe, the boy; das Küchlein, from der Kuchen, the cake; das Engelein, from der Engel, the angel. If it be

required to transform a word, ending in *ch*, or *g*, into a diminutive with *chen*, the syllable *el* must be inserted; as, das Büchelchen, das Ringelchen, from das Buch, the book; der Ring, the ring. This is done to prevent the concurrence of the same, or similar letters On that account, it is better to say Seelelein, than Seellein, from die Seele, the soul: Schnällelein, than Schnällein, from die Schnalle, the buckle; though, in these instances, *chen* should be preferred, Seelchen, Schnällchen.—All diminutives are of the neuter gender, as has been stated before. Their original signification is that of littleness, which is differently modified, assuming, in the object, sometimes the idea of prettiness, sometimes that of smallness only, and also, occasionally, that of ridicule and contempt; and in the person speaking, or writing, frequently that of fondness, or flattery.

6. Some words of the second declension, take their plural number from the third so as to end in *en:* as, der Baier, the Bavarian; der Bauer, the peasant; der Pantoffel, the slipper; der Stachel, the sting; der Vetter, a male relation, a cousin; das Auge, the eye; das Ende, the end: pl. Baiern, Bauern, Pantoffeln, Stacheln, Vettern, Augen, Enden. It would be no great offence against the language, if they were altogether, both in the singular and plural, consigned to the third declension.

Third Declension.

Containing *all the Masculines*, ending in *e* and *st (of more than one syllable); some other words of the same*

der Funke, the spark; der Fußstapfe, the footstep; der Gedanke, the thought; der Glaube, the faith, the belief; der Haufe, the crowd; der Karpfe, the carp; der Name, the name; der Same, the seed; der Schade, the hurt, injury, damage; der Wille, the will: of which the reason seems to be, that these words may likewise, in the nominative case singular, be expressed by Frieden, Funken, Fußstapfen, Gedanken, Glauben, Haufen, Karpfen, Namen, Samen, Schaden, Willen; and referred to the second declension, in which *s* is the necessary characteristick of the genitive.* But notwithstanding this circumstance, the *s* is, in those words, frequently omitted.

2. It has been stated, that the masculines, ending in *e* and *st*, fall under this declension, if they be of more than one syllable. Therefore, monosyllables, as der Thee, the tea: der Zwist, discord, do not belong to it. Yet der Christ, the christian, and der Fürst, the prince, are included: but these may, originally, have been Christe, Fürste; and thus have lain within the rule. Der See, the lake, is in the singular of the fourth, and in the plural of the third declension.

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* One of these words, der Schaden, sometimes bears another mark of the second declension, namely, that it is, in the plural, expressed by Schäden. Thus it is used by Wieland, Agathon, Vol. II, p. 259, (Leipzig, 1794. 8vo). That change, of *a* into *ä*, appertains decidedly to the second declension, and not the third.

3. To the third declension belong the following words: der Advocat, the advocate; der Architekt, the architect; der Barbar, the barbarian; der Basilisk, the basilisk; der Bär, the bear; der Bey, a Turkish governour; der Brunn, the well, (also Brunnen, after the second); der Buchstab, the letter, or character, of the alphabet; der Cadett, a cadet, young soldier; der Camerad, the comrade; der Candidat, the candidate; der Catholick, the Roman catholick; der Christ, the christian; der Client, the client; der Correspondent, the correspondent; der Daum, the thumb, (Daumen, after the second); der Docent, the teacher; der Ducat, a species of coin; der Elephant, the elephant; der Fels, the rock, (also der Felsen, second declension); der Fürst, the prince; der Geck, a ridiculous man; der Genoß, the associate partner; der Gesell, the associate, journeyman; der Graf, the count; der Hagestolz, a bachelor, an unmarried man; der Halunk, the scoundrel; der Heiduck, a sort of footman; der Held, the hero; der Herr, the lord, or master; der Hirt, the herdsman; der Husar, the hussar; der Janitschar, the Janisary; der Insaß, the inmate; der Mensch, man, a human being. (das Mensch, an abject female, is of the fourth); der Mohr, the moor, or negro; der Monarch, the monarch; der Narr, the fool; der Ochs, the ox; der Paragraph, the paragraph; der Patriarch, the patriarch; der Pfriem, the awl, (also der Pfriemen, second); der Philosoph, the philosopher; der Poet, the poet; der Potentat, the potentate; der Präsident, the president; der Prälat, the prelate; der Prinz, the prince; der Psalm, the psalm; der Schenk, the cup-bearer, butler, publican, (also after the fourth); der Schmerz, pain, (more commonly after the fourth); der Schöps,

die Belehrung, the information; der Urlaub, permission, pl. die Erlaubnisse, from die Erlaubniß, the permission.

2. Some names of plants: as, der Kohl, the cabbage; der Hafer, the oats;* der Hopfen, hops;* das Schilf, the reed; die Kresse, cresses. Of some the plural is likewise unusual, in English; viz. der Klee, clover; der Knoblauch, the garlick; der Spargel, asparagus; der Flachs, the flax; der Hanf, the hemp; die Gerste, the barley; der Weitzen, the wheat.—When the plural is to be expressed, some adjunct must be made use of, such as, die Art, the kind; die Pflanze, the plant: for example, zwey Pflanzen Kohl, two cabbages; die Kohlarten, the kinds of cabbage; die Kleepflanzen, plants of clover; die Kleearten, or Arten Klee, different kinds of clover. When the name of the plant ends in a simple *r*, and the adjunct is to follow it, the letter *n* is generally inserted: as, Gerstenarten, Kressenpflanzen.

3. Words implying quantity, weight, or measure, are seldom used in the plural, although numerals, exceeding *One*, should be put before them. Of this kind are:

Der Acker, the acre: for example, zehn Acker Land, ten acres of land.

Das Buch, a quire (of paper): ex. drey Buch Papier, three quires of paper.

Das Bund, the bundle, truss, sheaf: sechs Bund Stroh, six trusses of straw.

Das Dutzen, the dozen: zwanzig Dutzend Wein, twenty dozens of wine.

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* Not used in the singular, in English.

Das Faß, the cask: zwölf Faß Bier, twelve casks of beer.

Die Faust, the hand: vierzehn Faust hoch, fourteen hands high.

Der Grad, a mathematical degree: hundert Grad, hundred degrees.

Das Haupt, the head: vier Haupt Rindvieh, four heads of horned cattle.

Das Jahr, the year, as a measure of time. Zehn Jahr alt, ten years old.

Die (in some provinces, das) Klafter, the fathom: neun Klafter, nine fathoms.

Das Mahl, time, repetition of an act: as, ein Mahl, once; zwey Mahl, twice; drey Mahl, three times; vier Mahl, four times; sechs Mahl, six times.

Der Mann, the man: as, die Compagnie ist hundert Mann stark, the company is a hundred men strong.

Die Mark, the mark, a weight: as, zehn Mark Gold, ten marks of gold.

Das Paar, the pair: drey Paar Schuhe, three pair of shoes; sechs Paar Strümpfe, six pair of stockings.

Note: Ein Paar, also signifies a few: ein Paar Tage, a few days.

Das Pfund, the pound: vier Pfund Zucker, four pounds of sugar.

Das Schock, a number of sixty: zwey Schock Aepfel, six score of apples.

Der Stein, the stone; vierzehn Stein schwer, fourteen stone weight.

Das Stück, the piece. sieben Stück Tuch, seven pieces of cloth.

Der Zoll, an inch: fünf Zoll breit, five inches broad.

A few words are excepted from this rule, such as die Elle, or Ehle, the ell, or yard; die Meile, the mile; die Unze, the ounce: and some others, which must be learnt in practice. It is to be observed, that the substantives, which follow those nouns of measure or quantity, are not declined, unless either a pronoun, or an adjective, be joined with them. When accompanied by pronouns, they stand in the genitive case, or the dative with the preposition von, of: sechs Pfund dieses Zuckers, or von diesem Zucker, six pounds of this sugar: vier Faß jenes Weines, or von jenem Weine, four casks of that wine;—when by adjectives, they remain in the nominative, if no other word be in the sentence to govern them; or if there be such a word, for instance, a verb, or a preposition, they are put in the cases required by either; as, Schicken Sie mir drey Dutzend guten Wein, und sechs Pfund feinen Zucker, send me three dozens of good wine, and six pounds of fine sugar —guten Wein, and feinen Zucker, are accusative cases, governed by the verb schicken, to send. Thus with a preposition; Mit zehn Faß gutem Biere, und mit sieben Stück fettem Viehe, with six casks of good beer, and seven heads of fat cattle; here gutem Biere, fettem Viehe, are in the dative, governed by the preposition mit.—An adjective between a numeral and the term of quantity, or measure, corresponds with the numeral, so as to assume the plural form, when the number exceeds ONE; but it has, of itself, no effect, upon the substantive: as, sechs geometrische Fuß, six geometrical feet. When, however, a preposition, or a verb governs the adjective, the word of quantity, or measure,

is likewise influenced by it: as, ein Feld von hundert geometrischen Fußen, a field of a hundred geometrical feet, where it would be improper to say, Fuß.—The word Paar, nevertheless, departs from this rule, and continues invariable under those circumstances: as, Geben Sie mir vier gute Paar Schuhe, give me four good pair of shoes; mit vier guten Paar Schuhen, with four pair of good shoes. Yet the substantive, after it, is affected by the governing word, as is seen in the last example, where Schuhen is the dative, on account of the preposition mit. Otherwise, when the term of quantity itself is governed, and varied in its case, the substantive, after it, may be put in the genitive, or left unaltered: as, Von sechs geometrischen Fußen Landes, or Land.—The English language somewhat resembles the German, in regard to the use of the singular number, in certain words of measure, or quantity: for example, *Ten pound of English money, twenty piece of cloth*, instead of *pounds, pieces;* though this is not deemed strictly correct.

C. The following words have no singular: die Gefälle, the taxes; die Einkünfte, the revenue; die Kosten, the expenses; die Unkosten, the costs; die Aeltern, the parents: die Ahnen, the ancestors; die Beinkleider, the small clothes: die Hosen,* the breeches; die Waffen, the weapons, arms; die Schranken, the bounds, the lists; die Gebrüder, the brothers; die Geschwister, the brothers

* Die Hose, the breeches, in the singular number, is not unfrequently used, though this may, perhaps, be considered as provincial language.

	Singular.	*Singular.*
Nom.	Jacobi, Jacobi	Cato, Cato
Gen.	Jacobi's, of	Cato's, of
Dat.	Jacobi'n, to	Cato'n, to
Acc.	Jacobi'n, Jacobi.	Cato'n, Cato.
Nom.	Jablonsky, Jablonsky	Fagel, Fagel
Gen.	Jablonsky's, of	Fagel's
Dat.	Jablonsky'n, to	Fageln, to
Acc.	Jablonsky'n, Jablonsky	Fageln, Fageln.
Nom.	Schulz, Schulz	Kant, Kant
Gen.	Schulz'es, or Schulz'ens, of	Kant's, of
Dat.	Schulzen, to	Kanten, to
Acc.	Schulzen, Schulz.	Kanten, Kant.

For the Feminine Gender.

	Singular.	*Singular.*
Nom.	Diana, Diana	Friederike, Frederica
Gen.	Diana's, or Dianen's, of	Friederike'ns of
Dat.	Dianen, to	Friederiken, to
Acc.	Dianen, Diana.	Friederiken, Frederica.

Nom.	Sappho, Sappho
Gen.	Sappho's, of
Dat.	Sappho'n, to
Acc.	Sappho'n, Sappho.

Instead of the simple *s*, in the genitive case—*es* or *ens* must be added, in words that end in *s*, *ss*, *sch*, *x*, *z*, *tz*: as, Mylius, gen. Myliusses, or Myliussens; Fuchs, Frisch, gen. Fuchsens, Frischens, in which two last examples, *ens* may be thought preferable to *es*, because a distinction is thus made between Fuchses; the gen. of der Fuchs, the fox, and that proper name; and likewise between frisches, the neuter of the adjective frisch, and the proper name. Max, gen. Max'es, or Max'ens; Schulz, gen. Schulz'es, or Schulz'ens; Franz, gen. Franz'es, or Franz'ens; Moritz, gen. Moritz'es or Moritz'ens. The addition of *s* alone would here create an offensive harshness.

The characteristick letters *ns*, or *ens*, of the genitive case are always appropriated to female names, ending in *e*, as, Friederike, gen. Friederikens; and very often to those which end in *a*: as, Flora, gen. Florens; Europa gen. Europens. Nor are they uncommon in male names, ending in *e*, or a consonant, except *l*, and *r*. For example: Heyne, gen. Heynens, Kant, gen. Kantens; Wolf, gen. Wolfens; though it is more consistent with modern usage, in these names, to omit the *n*, or *en*, before the *s*.

Names ending in *as*, *es*, *os*, *us*, do not well bear the usual terminations of the genitive, in *es*, or *ens*; for the sound, which is thus produced, is disagreeable. It is, therefore, avoided, when it conveniently can be done. Most names, of those endings, are from the Latin: and not unfrequently, the Latin termination of the genitive is adopted: as, das Leiden Christi, the sufferings of Christ; das Leben Alcibiadis, the life of Alcibiades; where *Christi* and *Alcibiadis* are the Latin genitives, from *Christus*,

Alcibiades, instead of the German Christusses, Alcibiadesses; or Christusens, Alcibiadesens. Another method of superseding the awkward sound of the latter, is not to give any distinctive termination to the genitive at all; and to say, Christus Leiden; Alcibiades Leben; or das Leiden Christus; das Leben Alcibiades; yet the last is more unusual: for the genitive, void of any other mark of discrimination, may, in a manner, be distinguished by being placed before the noun that governs it; but not so well, when it stands after. Sometimes, the preposition von, of, may be of service, though it is not always applicable; and occasionally, an irregular abbreviation is resorted to, as, Achelones, from Achelous, which should be Achelousens. But the most obvious and best mode, is the use of the article.

As there are two ways of declining proper names, it may be asked, when, and how, each of them is to be employed?

The first mode, with the article, answers almost every purpose, except when the genitive case is to precede the word, by which it is governed. The variable terminations ought then to be used: as, Homer's Ilias, the Iliad of Homer; Virgil's Aeneis, Virgil's Æneid; not des Homer Ilias; des Virgil Aeneis. Here, if the article were prefixed, the terminations could not be dispensed with, and the article would be a superfluous addition. After a demonstrative pronoun, the genitive of male names always takes the *s*, when that case is put before the word on which it depends: as, dieses Cicero's Schriften, the writing of this Cicero; jenes Virgil's Gedichte, the poems of that Virgil.—The endings *n*, and *en*, in the dative and accu-

sative, occur more frequently in the language of common life, than in accurate composition: and the article seems now to be generally preferred. Yet there may be circumstances, in which the use of those terminations must be allowed. In some provinces, they are even added to the dative and accusative cases of common appellatives, supplying the place of the article: as, Sage Vatern, tell the father, dat. for dem Vater; rufe Brudern, Muttern, call the brother, the mother, for dem Bruder, die Mutter. This, however, is a barbarism.—Sometimes, the dative and accusative are not discriminated from the nominative, either by the article, or the termination: as, Ich habe es Schlegel gesagt, I told Schlegel, for dem Schlegel, or Schlegeln; haben Sie Cicero gelesen, have you read Cicero; haben Sie Pitt gesehen, have you seen Pitt, for den Cicero, or Ciceron, and den Pitt, or Pitten. But this deviation from the rule can hardly be justified; though it must be acknowledged, that it is by no means uncommon, especially after prepositions, and after transitive verbs. When a substantive, whether a title or other appellative, with the article, stands before a proper name, the latter remains undeclined: as, des Philosophen Kant, of the philosopher Kant; des Dichters Bürger, the poet Bürger; des Kaisers Joseph, of the Emperour Joseph. But, if the substantive is not attended with an article, the proper name must be varied in its termination, at least in the genitive case; as, König Friederich's Siege, King Frederick's victories; Herrn Leiser's Schriften, Mr. Leiser's writings. In the first example it is to be remarked, that, grammatically, König, ought to be Königes, or Königs; but as the proper

name, belonging to this appellative, has the same characteristick ending, it is omitted in the latter, to spare the reiteration of the hissing sound. It is not necessary to vary the proper name, when the preceding title, or appellative, is in the dative, or accusative: as, er hat es dem Herrn Richter erzählt, he has told it to Mr. R.; wir haben den Doctor Herrschel gesehen, we have seen Dr. H.— When two or more names stand in opposition, the last only requires the characteristick ending of the oblique case: for example, Emanuel Kant's Werke, the works of Emanuel Kant: Johann Georg Heinrich Feder's Schriften, the writings of John George Henry Feder. When the sur-name is preceded by the term von, which implies nobility, the last Christian name takes the termination: as, der Name Carl Friederich's von Wangenheim, the name of Charles Frederick of Wangenheim; das Andenken Wilhelm Gottfried's von Leibnitz, the memory of William Godfrey de Leibnitz. A common substantive, being in opposition to a proper name, must be put in the same case: as, das Lebens Carl's des Zwölften, Königes von Schweden, the life of Charles the twelfth, king of Sweden.

The names of countries, and places, admit the *s* in the genitive, but not *n* in the other cases: as, Deutschland's blühender Zustand, the flourishing state of Germany. The dative and accusative are, therefore, like the nominative. Sometimes the dative may end in *e*, when the word is referred to the fourth declension: as, in dem volkreichen Deutschlande, in the populous country of Germany. The article never can be prefixed to such names, unless an adjective, or participle, intervenes, as in the last

example. The genitive is not unfrequently represented by the preposition von: as, die Könige von England, the kings of England.

A male name may be converted into a female, by the addition of the syllable *inn*:* as, Heyne; die Heyninn, Heyne's wife, or daughter. Yet this is not a very elegant manner of conveying the idea, and is generally exchanged for some other mode of expression.

We have hitherto spoken of the *Singular Number* of proper names; if a *Plural* be wanted, it may, perhaps, in general, be recommended to form it, according to the gender and termination of the word, after one of the four declensions: namely, in feminines, after the first; in masculines, ending in *el*, *en*, *er*, after the second; in those in *e* and *st* (of more than one syllable), after the third; and in the rest, after the fourth. But it is not to be denied, that frequently an uncouthness would be thus produced; as, for example, if you were to say: die Bacone, die Priestleye, the Bacons the Priestleys. In such instances, it is better to have recourse to the letter *s*, as the index of the plural, though it is not a genuine German termination for that number. It has been once before called in aid, when we were speaking of certain nouns substantive, ending in *a*, in the second declension.† Let us father observe, that the plurals to be formed after the third declension, may be objected to

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* This is in some provinces, turned into *en*, as, die Heynen, Mrs. or Miss Heyne.

† See p. 149. Obs. 2.

for this reason, that the termination *en* is liable to be mistaken for the female ending, sometimes used instead of *inn*: as, die Theophrasten, for Theophrastinn, the wife or daughter of Theophrastus; die Heynen, for Heyninn, the wife, or daughter, of Heyne. I have, therefore, suggested, in another place,* the expediency of referring the words in *st* to the fourth declension: as, Theophrast, plur. die Theophraste, the Theophrasti; and of applying to those, which have the singular in *e*, the letter *s*, or rather *ns*: as, die Göthens, die Heynens, the Göthes, the Heynes. Most of the female names make their plural in *en*, conformably to the first declension; as, Diana, Friederike, plur. die Dianen, die Friederiken;—those in *o*, by the addition of *n*, or *s*, as Sappho, plur. die Sapphon, or die Sapphos.

Every proper name may, like a common substantive, be lessened into a diminutive, by means of the syllable *chen*, or *lein*, (of which see above): for example, Carlchen, little Charles; Dianchen, little Diana. These diminutives belong all, without exception, to the second declension of substantives, and are of the neuter gender.†

III. It may be remarked that, wherever no article can be employed, the genitive case is generally characterized by the letter *s*. This is to be seen in compound words: as, das Liebesband, the bond of love, instead of

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* Exercises, p. 17, note 5 (4th ed.)

† See p. 150, Obs. 5; and p. 125. Obs. 7.

das Band der Liebe; das Hülfsmittel, a means, or expedient; from das Mittel, and die Hülfe; das Arbeitshaus, the work-house, from das Haus, and die Arbeit; der Geburtstag, the birth day, from der Tag, and die Geburt; die Auslegungskunst, the art of interpretation, from die Kunst, and die Auslegung; and though it is not used in all compounds, yet in these and others, the power of the *s* is clearly manifested.

IV. Foreign words, which have been received into the German language, must be adapted to one of the four declensions: or take the *s*, for their plural termination.*

SECTION IV.

THE DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

NOUNS adjective assume four different forms.

The First Form

is adverbial, that is to say, without a declinable termina-

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* The precept here given coincides with the notions of Quintilian, Inst. Or. 1, 5. *Inde illa quæstio oritur, an eádem ratione per casus duci externa, quâ nostra conveniat. —Mihi autem placet Latinam rationem sequi, quôsque patitur decor. In cæteris quæ poterunt utroque modo non indecenter efferri, qui Græcam figuram sequi malit, non Latine quidem, sed citra reprehensionem loquetur.*

tion. In this form the adjective appears, when it is not placed before a substantive, nor preceded by an article, or a pronoun.

The Second Form

is made use of, when the adjective stands before a substantive, without an article preceding. It is declined with three genders, in the singular number: the plural has only one termination, for all genders. These are the terminations:

Singular.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	*Plural.*
Nom.	*er,*	*e,*	*es.*	Nom. *e.*
Gen.	*es,*	*er,*	*es.*	Gen. *er.*
Dat.	*em,*	*er,*	*em.*	Dat. *en.*
Acc.	*en,*	*e,*	*es.*	Acc. *e.*

The Third Form

is governed by the definite article, Der, die, das. Three genders in the singular.

Singular.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	*Plural.*
Nom.	*e,*	*e,*	*e.*	Nom. *en.*
Gen.	*en,*	*en,*	*en.*	Gen. *en.*
Dat.	*en,*	*en,*	*en.*	Dat. *en.*
Acc.	*en,*	*e,*	*e,*	Acc. *en.*

The Fourth Form.

is preceded by the indefinite article, Ein, eine, ein; or a possessive pronoun, as, Mein, meine, mein, my.

Three genders in the singular.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	*er,*	*e,*	*es.*	Nom. *en.*
Gen.	*en,*	*en,*	*en.*	Gen. *en.*
Dat.	*en,*	*en,*	*en.*	Dat. *en.*
Acc.	*en,*	*e,*	*es.*	Acc. *en.*

First Form.

This is the original, of which the following are modifications. In that form the adjective always is seen, when it is unconnected with any article, or pronoun, before, or any substantive, after it. It is in this form, that it is to be looked for in the dictionary.

As it is not declined, it wants the terminations, which serve for the purpose of inflection. Examples: Gut, good; groß, great; klein, little; roth, red; weiß, white. In this shape it remains, when it is put after a substantive: as, Cäsar klug und tapfer, Cæsar prudent, and brave. It is of no consequence, whether the substantive be of the singular, or plural number; the adjective, when placed after it, is invariable: for example, Der Römer kühn und herrschsüchtig, the Romans bold, and ambitious. The same after a verb: as, der Mann ist

gut, the man is good; die Farbe heißt roth, the colour is called red; es ist kalt, it is cold. Nor does the number of the verb, singular or plural, make any difference: as, sie sind groß, they are great.

Adjectives, in the first form, mostly terminate in consonants. Some end in the diphthongs *au, eu, ey:* as, Grau, grey; treu, faithful; frey, free: and several in *e.* as, Blöde, bashful; bange, anxious; enge, narrow; geschwinde, quick; böse, bad, naughty, or angry; trübe, not clear, troubled.

Second Form.

When the adjective is placed before the substantive, to which it belongs, without an article antecedent, it stands in this form, which is declined in the following manner:

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Guter,	Gute,	Gutes.	Gute.
Gen.	Gutes,	Guter,	Gutes.	Guter.
Dat.	Gutem,	Guter,	Gutem.	Guten.
Acc.	Guten,	Gute,	Gutes.	Gute.

Examples: Guter Wein, good wine; gute Milch, good milk; gutes Bier, good beer.

Observations.

1. When two or more adjectives are before the same substantive, without an article preceding them, they ought all to submit to the second form, as in these exam-

ples: Guter, alter, rother Wein, good, old, red wine; gute, süße, frische Milch, good, sweet, new milk; gutes, starkes, braunes Bier, good, strong, brown beer. But in the genitive and dative cases singular, and in the genitive plural, it often happens, that only the first adjective complies with this mode of declension, and the others adopt the termination *en*. This is admitted, with the intention of avoiding a disagreeable repetition of *es*, *em*, *er*. For instance, gen. sing. gutes, alten, rothen Weines; guter, süßen Milch; dat. sing. gutem, starken, braunen Biere; gen. pl. guter, alten Weine. The ending *es* is, in the adjective even, sometimes, displaced by *en*, when only a substantive, in *s*, follows; as, guten Theils, in a great degree; andern Theils, on the other hand; meisten Theils, for the most part; größten Theils, for the greatest part; widrigen Falls, in a contrary case; folgenden Tages, the day following; den ersten Jun verwichenen Jahres, the first of June of last year; guten Muthes, of good cheer; trockenen Fußes, with a dry foot; stehenden Fußes, without loss of time; alten Ursprunges, of old original; eine Art wollenen Zeuges, a kind of worsted. The repetition of *er* is less objectionable, than that of *es*; and I think it preferable to an iteration of *en*: as, Guter, süßer, frischer Milch, better than guter, süßen, frischen Milch. In the following example, *en* would certainly be less pleasing to the ear: Eine Reihe wohlklingender Deutscher Verse, a series of harmonious German verses; Uebersetzungen alter Griechischer und Lateinischer Schriftsteller, translations of ancient Greek and Latin authors: in which, if *en* be substituted for *er*, in Deutschen, Griechischen, Lateinischen, the harmony of the sentence is diminished. The *er* should not be unnecessarily removed, as

is sometimes done: Nach Bedä guten Anleitung, after the good precepts of Beda; mit deines Vaters gütigen Erlaubniß, with your father's kind permission; um Amalie'ns schönen Gestalt willen, for the sake of Amelia's beautiful countenance; Alcest's weisen Ermahnung eingedenk, mindful of Alcest's wise admonition: where it should be guter gütiger, schöner, weiser.—The termination *en*, belongs to the third and fourth forms, so that, when it is anywhere else adopted, an intermixture of the forms may be said to take place. It is not unusual to see it employed in the vocative case: as, Lieben Leute, good people; for, liebe Leute.*

2. It is doubtful, whether after the following plurals: Alle, all; wenige, few; mehrere, many, several; etliche, some, sundry; einige, some; manche, several; solche, such; selbige, such—the adjectives ought to be placed in the second, or in the subsequent forms. And it is to be remarked, that, in the nominative and accusative cases, the second form *is*, generally used, after einige, etliche, viele, wenige, manche, mehrere; and after, alle, selbige, solche, it *may* be used:† but in the genitive the termination *en*, of the other forms, should always be preferred. Examples:

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* For this practice Wieland, and other good authorities, may be quoted. The irregularity would be done away by understanding a personal pronoun, before the vocative: as, Ihr lieben Leute.

† Wieland forms all the cases of the plural in *en*, after alle.

Plural.

Nom. Einige gute Leute, some good people.
Gen. Einiger guten Leute, of some
Dat. Einigen guten Leute, to some
Acc. Einige gute Leute, some good people.

Nom. Alle gute Menschen, all good men.
Gen. Aller guten Menschen, of all
Dat. Allen guten Menschen, to all
Acc. Alle gute Menschen, all good men.

3. Words that are not declined, such as adverbs, some adjectives, and most of the cardinal numbers, have no influence upon the adjective. When, therefore, after such words, it is followed by a substantive, it will appear in the second form. For example: sing. masc. Sehr guter Wein, very good wine; pl. sehr gute Menschen, very good people; sing. fem. etwas kalte Milch, some cold milk; sing. neut. viel weisses Brodt, a great deal of (or much) white bread: wenig starkes Bier, a small quantity of (or little) strong beer. Plural with numerals: Zwanzig tapfere Männer, twenty brave men; zehn schöne Frauen, ten handsome women; vier kleine Kinder, four little children. Sing. and pl. Allerley buntes Papier, all kinds of variegated paper; allerley schöne Sachen, all sorts of fine things. The same with allerhand, all kinds; mancherley, several kinds.

Third Form.

When the definite article, or a pronoun demonstrative, relative, interrogative, or the adjectives, Mancher, jeder, jedweder, jeglicher, go before.

It is thus declined:

1. *With the Definite Article.*

Singular.

Nom.	Der gute,	die gute,	das gute.
Gen.	Des guten,	der guten,	des guten.
Dat.	Dem guten,	der guten,	dem guten.
Acc.	Den guten,	die gute,	das gute.

Plural.

Nom.	Die guten.
Gen.	Der guten.
Dat.	Den guten.
Acc.	Die guten.

Examples: nom. Der gute Mann, the good man; die gute Frau, the good woman; das gute Kind, the good child;—gen. des guten Mannes, der guten Frau, des guten Kindes, &c.

2. *With a Pronoun Demonstrative.*

Singular.

Nom.	Dieser gute,	diese gute,	dieses gute.
Gen.	Dieses guten,	dieser guten,	dieses guten.
Dat.	Diesem guten,	dieser guten,	diesem guten.
Acc.	Diesen guten,	diese gute,	dieses gute.

Plural.

Nom.	Diese guten.
Gen.	Dieser guten.
Dat.	Diesen guten.
Acc.	Diese guten.

Examples: Dieser gute Sohn, this good son; diese gute Tochter, this good daughter; dieses gute Kind, this good child, &c.

3. *With a Pronoun Relative, or Interrogative.*

Singular.

Nom.	Welcher gute,	welche gute	welches gute.
Gen.	Welches guten,	welcher guten,	welches guten.
Dat.	Welchem guten,	welcher guten,	welchem guten.
Acc.	Welchen guten,	welche gute,	welches gute.

Plural.

Nom.	Welche guten.
Gen.	Welcher guten.
Dat.	Welchen guten.
Acc.	Welche guten.

Examples; Welcher gute Mann, which good man; welche gute Frau, which good woman; welches gute Kind, which good child, &c.—Welcher, like *which*, in English, is used both in a relative, and interrogative signification.

4. With the adjectives, Mancher, many a one; jeder, jedweder, jeglicher, each, every.

Singular.

Nom.	Mancher gute,	manche gute,	manches gute.
Gen.	Manches guten,	mancher guten,	manches guten.
Dat.	Manchem guten,	mancher guten,	manchem guten.
Acc.	Manchen guten,	manche gute,	manches gute.

Plural.

Nom. Manche guten, (more commonly, gute).
Gen. Mancher guten.
Dat. Manchen guten.
Acc. Manche guten, (more commonly, gute).

Examples: Mancher gute Vater, many a good father; manche gute Mutter, many a good mother; manches gute Kind, many a good child. In the same manner, jeder, jede, jedes; jedweder, jedwede, jedwedes, and jeglicher, jegliche, jegliches.

Observations.

1. The demonstrative pronouns, as many as there are, (see the following chapter), govern the adjective in this form. Of relatives and interrogatives there are none, which can be joined with an adjective, besides the one mentioned.

2. Some participles, which are used in a demonstrative capacity, seem to have the same influence upon the declension of the adjective. Of this description are: Besagt, aforesaid; folgend, following; gedacht, aforementioned. For example: Besagter alte Mann, the said old man; gedachtes neue Haus, the new house mentioned; folgendes schöne Werk, the following beautiful work. Sing. nom. Besagter alte Mann, the said old man; gen. besagtes alten Mannes, of the said old man; dat. besagtem alten Manne, to ——; acc. besagten alten Mann, the said old man. Plural nom. Besagte alten Männer, the said old men; gen. besagter alten Männer, of——; dat. besagten alten

Männern, to ——; acc. besagte alten Männer, the said old men, &c.

Fourth Form.

This form takes place after the indefinite article, after cardinal numbers which are declined:* after the negative adjective Kein, none; and after pronouns personal, and possessive. The inflexion is as follows:

1. *With the Indefinite Article, and some Numerals.*

Singular.

Nom.	Ein guter,	eine gute,	ein gutes,
Gen.	Eines guten,	einer guten,	einer guten.
Dat.	Einem guten,	einer guten,	einem guten.
Acc.	Einen guten,	eine gute,	ein gutes.

Examples: Ein guter Mann, a good man; eine gute Frau; ein gutes Kind. Gen. Eines guten Mannes, &c.

There is no plural to the indefinite article. It serves also for the numeral *One*, and, as such, is declined in

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* Such are only the first numeral, ein, eine, ein, throughout the singular; and zwey, two, drey, three, in the genitive and dative cases. The nominative and accusative of zwey und drey, which have no variable terminations, have the character of other cardinal numbers, and do not affect the adjective, but leave it, before the substantive, in the second form: for example, zwey starke Männer, two strong men; drey junge Mädchen, three young girls; vier kleine Knaben, four little boys.

the same manner. Of the other numerals, Zwey, two, and Drey, three, are only declined in the genitive and dative, when put before adjectives; in this manner:

Plural.

Nom. Zwey (drey) gute Leute, two (three) good people.
Gen. Zweyer (dreyer) guten, of two (three)
Dat. Zweyen (dreyen) guten, to
Acc. Zwey (drey) gute Leute, two (or three) good people.

Observations.

1. When the numerals have no declinable termination, as here, in the nominative, and accusative cases, the adjective after them remains in the second form.*

2. The word Beide, both, is to be considered as such a numeral, and the adjective after it to be put in the second form, in the nominative and accusative cases.

2. *With the Negative* Kein, *none.*

Singular.

Nom.	Kein guter,	keine gute,	kein gutes.
Gen.	Keines guten,	keiner guten,	keines guten.
Dat.	Keinem guten,	keiner guten,	keinem guten.
Acc.	Keinen guten,	keine gute,	kein gutes.

Plural.

Nom.	Keine guten,	Dat.	Keinen guten.
Gen.	Keiner guten,	Acc.	Keine guten.

* See Elements, (2nd edit.) p. 25.

Examples: Kein guter Mann, no good man; keine gute Frau; kein gutes Kind, &c.

3. *With a Personal Pronoun.*

Singular.

Nom.	Ich armer,	Ich arme,	Ich armes.
Gen.	(not usual in the personal pronoun).		
Dat.	Mir armen,	Mir armen,	Mir armen.
Acc.	Mich armen,	Mich arme,	Mich armes.

Plural.

Nom.	Wir armen,	Dat.	Uns armen.
Gen.	(not used).	Acc.	Uns armen.

The same with the other personal pronouns, Du, thou; Er, he; Sie, she.

Examples: Ich armer Mann, I poor man; Ich arme Frau, I poor woman; Ich armes Kind, I poor child;—Du frommer Sohn, thou dutiful son; du fromme Tochter, thou dutiful daughter; du frommes Lamm, thou gentle lamb

4. *With a Possessive Pronoun.*

Singular.

Nom.	Mein guter,	meine gute,	mein gutes.
Gen.	Meines guten,	meiner guten,	meines guten.
Dat.	Meinem guten,	meiner guten,	meinem guten.
Acc.	Meinen guten,	meine gute,	mein gutes.

Plural.

Nom.	Meine guten.	Dat.	Meinen guten.
Gen.	Meiner guten.	Acc.	Meine guten.

The same with the other possessives: as, dein, thy; sein, his, its; ihr, her; unser, our; euer, your; ihr, their.

Additional Remarks on the Adjectives.

I. When the adjective, in the first form, ends in *el*, or *er*, the *e*, before *l* and *r*, is in the other forms, generally, thrown out; for instance, Edel, noble.

2d form,	Edler,	edle,	edles.
Gen.	edles,	edler,	edles, &c.
3d form,	Der edle,	die edle,	das edle.
Gen.	des edlen,	der edlen,	des edlen, &c.
4th form	Ein edler,	eine edle,	ein edles,
Gen.	eines edlen,	einer edlen,	eines edlen, &c.

In the same manner: Lauter, pure, unmixed.

2d. form,	Lautrer,	lautre,	lautres.
Gen.	lautres,	lautrer,	lautres, &c.
3d. form,	Der lautre,	die lautre,	das lautre, &c.
4th. form.	Ein lautrer	eine lautre,	ein lautres, &c.

Frequently the *e*, which remains, is put before *l* and *r*, when the termination is in *n*: as edeln, instead of edlen; lautern, instead of lautren.

II. The adjective Hoch, high, has this peculiarity, that, in the other forms, the final *ch* is exchanged for the simple *h*, viz.

2d. form,	Hoher,	hohe,	hohes,
3d. form,	Der hohe	die hohe,	das hohe.
4th form,	Ein hoher,	eine hohe,	ein hohes.

The circumstance has been adverted to, and accounted

for, p. 60, second note. Compare also what is said of the comparative and superlative degrees, p. 210.

III. The terminations of some adjectives are not perfectly ascertained, and settled, chiefly of those that end in *ich*, *icht*, *ig*; which syllables are often promiscuously employed, in the same words: for example, blumig, blumich, blumicht—though some grammarians maintain, that a distinction ought to be made between these syllables. Namely *ig*, or *ich*, they say, relates to the matter, or substance, of which a thing consists, or is made; and *icht* signifies similitude, or resemblance; as, blumig, or blumich, flowery, full of flowers; blumicht, flower-like, resembling flowers. Thus, kupferig, coppery, containing copper; kupfericht, coppery, resembling copper, like copper.

IV. Some adjectives are never declined, and others only, when an article, or pronoun, is before them. Of the first description are, those ending in *ley*: as, Einerley, of one kind, or of the same kind; zweierley, of two kinds; dreierley, of three kinds; viererley, of four kinds; &c.; allerley, of all kinds; mancherley, of several kinds; vielerley, of many kinds. Add to these, allerhand, of all kinds, of all sorts; and the word einander, one another, each other; etwas, something of, some. Examples: Etwas Bier, some beer; allerley Wein, wine of various, or all, kinds: allerhand Sachen, things of all kinds; mit einander, with one another. Of the second class are, ganz, all, whole; halb, half. Examples: without an article, or pronoun, ganz Deutschland, all Germany, or whole Germany; halb Frankreich, half France, that is, the half of

women.*—What has been said of viel, and wenig, applies in every particular, to their comparatives, mehr, more, and weniger, less. These also stand adverbially, or in the first form, before substantives, and have the same latitudes, and the same limitations, as the former. Mehr Geld, more money, and weniger Geld, less money; instead of mehreres, wenigeres. And like the others, they occasionally govern the genitive case: as, solcher Leute mehr, more such people; unser sind mehr, there are more of us; ihrer sind weniger, there are fewer of them; where, solcher Leute, unser, ihrer, are genitive cases.—Vieles and weniges, the neuters of the second form, occur in a substantive capacity, denoting great quantity, little quantity.

VI. Common adjectives are sometimes used in the first, when they should be in one of the other forms: for instance, schön Wetter, fine weather, instead of schönes Wetter; ein groß Glück, a great piece of luck, instead of, ein großes Glück; ein reitzend Weib, a charming woman, instead of, ein reitzendes Weib; ein gut Glas Wein, a good glass of wine, for ein gutes Glas Wein. Though it only occurs in the neuter gender, it is fundamentally wrong, and must not be imitated.

VII. When two adjectives, of the same ending, are before one substantive, the termination of the first is sometimes, for the sake of brevity, suppressed: Ein roth- und weisses Gesicht, a red and white face, for ein rothes und weisses; Personen männ- und weiblichen Geschlechtes, persons of the male

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* See Appendix to the Elements. Sect. II, Note 142.

and female sex, for männlichen; ein genüg= und arbeitsamer Mensch, a contented and industrious man, for genügsamer; bley= und kupferartiges Erz, ore containing lead and copper, for bleyartiges; ein gram= und sorgenfreies Gemüth, a mind free from grief and sorrow, for gramfreies. This abbreviation should not be unnecessarily adopted; but in particular situations, it is convenient, and sounds well. It is also to be met with in nouns substantive; as, Genüg= und Arbeitsamkeit, contentment and industry, for Genügsam=keit; and generally indicated by the sign of hyphen (=). The Spaniards used a similar mode of contraction.

VIII. All participles share in the nature of adjectives. They are capable of the same modifications, according to four forms, and subject to the same laws. They will be treated of, in a subsequent part of this Grammar.

IX. Adjectives may be converted into substantives. This is either done elliptically, or abstractedly.

1. *Elliptically*, when a substantive is understood, Examples: der Deutsche, (supply Mann) the German, native of Germany; der Gelehrte, (supply Mann), the learned man, the scholar; der Weise, (supply Mann), the wise man; der Weltweise, the philosopher; der Liebste, or der Geliebte, (sup. Mann), the beloved man, the lover; (der Liebste, also signifies the husband; die Liebste, the wife); der Oberste, (sup. Mann), the man highest in command, the colonel; der Gesandte, (sup. Mann), the man sent, the ambassadour; der Bediente, for Bedienende, (sup. Mann), the waiting man, the man servant; der Reisende, (sup. Man), the traveller; der Verwandte, (sup. Mann), the man related, the relation; der Bekannte, (sup. Mann),

the man with whom we are acquainted, the acquaintance. die Schöne, (sup. Frau, or Frauensperson), the fair lady, the fair one; die Geliebte, or Liebste, (sup. Frau, or Frauens-person), the beloved woman; die Bekannte, (sup. Frau, or Frauensperson), the female acquaintance; die Verwandte, (sup. Frauensperson) the female relation; das Große, (sup. Wesen, being), that which is great; das Schöne, (sup. Wesen), that which is beautiful; das Erhabene, that which is sublime; das Edle, that which is noble. These substantives, in their mode of declension, remain liable to the three last forms of adjectives; namely, when no article is before them, they follow the second form; for example, in the plural, Gelehrte. gen. Gelehrter, dat. Gelehrten, acc. Gelehrte. When the definite article, or a pronoun demonstrative, &c. precedes, the third: as, sing. nom. der Bediente, the servant, gen. des Bedienten, dat. dem Bedienten, acc. den Bedienten. Plur. nom. die Bedienten, gen. der Bedienten, dat. den Bedienten, acc. die Bedienten. After the indefinite article, or a pronoun possessive, &c. the fourth form; as, sing. nom. mein Bekannter, my man acquaintance, gen. meines Bekannten, dat. meinem Bekannten, acc. meinen Bekannten. Thus in the feminine gender: sing. nom. meine Bekannte, my woman acquaintance, gen. meiner Bekannten, dat. meiner Bekannten, acc. meine Bekannte. Plur. nom. meine Bekannten, gen. meiner Bekannten, dat. meinen Bekannten, acc. meine Bekannten. In this manner all such words are to be inflected.* But

* Wieland (Agathon, vol. I. p. 69), says incorrectly, seine Bediente, for seine Bedienten. Herder errs in the same manner, saying, ihrer Schöne, for Schönen. (Zerstr. Blätter, vol. I. p. 122.)

2. Those which become substantives *abstractedly*, are differently treated. They represent the quality of the adjective abstracted, that means, as an object of itself, not as an adjunct to another: for instance, das Blau, the quality of blue, the colour blue; das Roth, the colour red; das Weiß, the colour white; das Rund, the quality of round, rotundity, or a round substance. They arise out of the first form, the article in the neuter gender being prefixed; and are varied after the second, or fourth declension of substantives: as sing. nom. das Blau, gen. des Blaus, dat. dem Blau, acc. das Blau; das Weiß, des Weisses, dem Weiß, das Weiß.

SECTION V.

THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

QUALITIES assigned to persons, or things, may exist in them, in a certain gradation; for which reason the adjectives, which are words, denoting qualities, are said to be capable of degrees of comparison.

The comparison, in grammar, is generally effected by two degrees, one of them, containing the idea *more*, and called the *Comparative*; and the other, expressing the notion *most*, and denominated the *Superlative*.

These degrees are in German, as in English, produced by the addition of certain letters, or syllables, to the adjectives; namely, the comparative by that of *r*, or *er*, and the superlative by that of *st*, or *est*.

This is analogous to the English language, and will be

easily understood by the reader. If, for instance, in English, the comparative degree of *bold* is to be formed, it will be done by adding *er* to it, *bolder;* and if the superlative is required, the addition of *est*, will answer that purpose, *boldest*. It would be the same in German.

THE COMPARATIVE DEGREE.

Rule. Take the adjective in its first form (see Declension of Adjectives), and add to it *er;* or *r* only, when it ends in *e:* you will then have the comparative degree of the first form. Examples: Schön, handsome—comparative, schöner, handsomer; enge, narrow—comparative, enger, narrower.

Observations.

1. The vowels a, o, u, are, in the comparative degree, changed into the diphthongs å, ö, ü, as, Arm, poor, compar. ärmer, poorer; groß, great, compar. größer, greater; kurz, short, compar. kürzer, shorter; jung, young, compar. jünger, younger. Au remains unaltered, as rauh, compar. rauher. The following words are likewise exempt from the transmutation: *a)* Blaß, bunt, fahl, falsch, froh, gerade, geschlank, glatt, hohl, hold, kahl, karg, knapp, lahm, laß, (weary), loß, (loose), lose, (wanton, frolicksome), matt, morsch, nackt, platt, plump, roh, rund, sacht, sanft, satt, schlaff, schlank, starr, stolz, straff, stumpf, toll, voll. *b)* Those which end in *haft* and *sam:* as, lasterhaft, tugendhaft, furchtsam. *c)* The participles, and such as are shaped like participles; though they cannot be deduced from existing verbs. Of this description are: abgeschmackt, bejahrt, bekannt, be=

tagt, bewandert, bewandt, gewogen, verwegen, verbuhlt, verhaßt, verrucht, verschlagen, verwandt, vollkommen, wohlhabend.

2. Adjectives, which end in *el*, cast away the *e* before *l*, in the comparative degree: as, Edel, noble, compar. edler, (for edeler), more noble; dunkel, dark, compar. dunkler, (for dunkeler), darker. A similar omission often takes place in those, ending in *en* and *er*; as, trocken, dry, compar. trockner, (for trockener), more dry; offen, open, compar. offner, (for offener), more open; vollkommen, perfect, compar. vollkommner, (for vollkommener); bitter, bitter, compar. bittrer; tapfer, brave, compar. tapfrer. But in these, the elision of the *e* is not necessarily required, and need not be practised, except for some particular reason in composition.—Hoch does not make the comparative Höcher, but Höher.*

3. The comparative degree is subject to the four forms of adjectives. *a*) The first, or adverbial: as, Homer ist schöner als Virgil, Homer is more beautiful than Virgil; die Schwester ist älter als der Bruder, the sister is older than the brother; das Kind ist weiser als der Vater, the child is more wise than the father. Die Römer waren mächtiger als die Griechen, the Romans were more powerful than the Grecians. In these examples, the comparative stands in the first form, as being neither preceded by an article, nor followed by a substantive. *b*) The second form, before a substantive, without an article or pronoun, antecedent. The terminations *er*, *e*, *es*, are added to the

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* Refer to p. 193, II.

first form: as, sing. nom, Schönerer, schönere, schöneres; größerer, größere, größeres; gen. größeres, größerer, größeres; dat. größerem, größerer, größerem; acc. größeren, größere, größeres. Plur. nom. größere, gen. größerer. dat. größeren, acc. größere. Examples: In Armuth zu sterben ist größerer Ruhm (größere Ehre—größeres Glück) als reich und lasterhaft zu leben, to die in poverty is greater glory (greater honour—greater happiness) than to live rich and vicious. Die Engländer sind größere Leute als die Franzosen, the English are taller people than the French. Here is the second form, because a substantive follows. *c)* The third form, with the definite article, or a pronoun demonstrative, or relative, preceding. In this manner: sing. nom. Der schönere, die schönere, das schönere; gen. des schöneren, der schöneren, des schöneren; dat. dem schöneren, der schöneren, dem schöneren; acc. den schöneren, die schönere, das schönere. Plur. nom. die schöneren, gen. der schöneren, dat. den schöneren, acc. die schöneren. Examples: Der größere Mann, the greater man; die größere Frau, the greater woman; das größere Kind, the greater child. Dieser schönere Mann, diese schönere Frau, dieses schönere Kind. *d)* The fourth form, with the indefinite article, or a personal. and possessive pronoun, going before: sing. nom. Ein größerer, eine größere, ein größeres; gen. eines größeren, einer größeren, eines größeren; dat. einem größeren, einer größeren, einem größeren; acc. einen größeren, eine größere, ein größeres. For example: Es ist ein größerer Verlust, eines Freundes beraubt zu werden, als vieler Schätze, it is a greater loss to be deprived of a friend, than of many treasures. Thus in the other genders: Eine größere Demüthigung, a greater mortification, fem.—ein größeres Unglück, a greater misfortune, neuter.

4. In the Additional Remarks on the Adjectives,* an errour has been noticed, which consists in using the first or adverbial form, where a declinable form ought to be employed. The same inaccuracy is to be met with, in the comparative degree: for instance, Schöner Wetter, instead of schöneres Wetter, finer weather; ein größer Glück, for ein größeres Glück, a greater piece of luck; but here also it is confined to the neuter gender.

5. Of those adjectives, which are irregular in their comparison, and those, which do not admit the terminations of the comparative degree, an account will be given in the Additional Remarks.

THE SUPERLATIVE DEGREE.

Rule. Add *st*, or *est*, to the first form of adjectives; this raises them to the superlative degree: as, Schön, fine—superl. schönst, finest; groß, great—superl. größest, greatest.

Observations.

1. The vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, are changed into the diphthongs ä, ö, ü, with the exceptions, adduced in the Comparative Degree, Obs. 1.

2. The adjectives in *e*, *b*, *ch*, *f*, *g*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *nd*, *r*, form the superlative in *st*: as, Geschwinde, sup. geschwindest; leise, sup. leisest; grob, sup. gröbst; herrlich, sup. herrlichst; scharf, sup. schärfst; arg, sup. ärgst; jung, sup. jüngst; schmal, sup. schmälst; furchtsam, sup. furchtsamst; schön, sup. schönst; reitzend, sup. reitzendst; heiter, sup. heiterst.—

* P. 196, VI.

Those which end in *e*, divest themselves of this letter, after *b* and *g*: as, Herbe, sup. herbst; enge, sup. engst.

3. Those in *au*, *eu*, *ey*; and in *d*, *h*, *k*, *ck*, *ff*, *ll*, *mm*, *nn*, *rr*, *pf*, *s* or *ss*, *sch*, *st*, *t*, *z*, make the superlative degree in *est*. For example: Blau, sup. blauest; neu, sup. neuest; frey, sup. freyest; wild, sup. wildest; roh, sup. rohest; schlank, sup. schlankest; stark, sup. stärkest; dick, sup. dickest; schlaff, sup. schlaffest; toll, sup. tollest; dumm, sup. dümmest; dünn, sup. dünnest; dürr, sup. dürrest; stumpf, sup. stumpfest; süß, sup. süßest; groß, sup. größest; morsch, sup. morschest; fest, sup. festest; hart, sup. härtest; kurz, sup. kürzest. But in these also, the *e*, before *st*, is frequently thrown out: as, der dümmste, der dünnste, der stärkste, der breitste. In participles it must be removed: as, der gebildetste Mensch, the most civilized man.

4. When *ss* precedes the termination of the superlative, *est* is sometimes changed into *t*. This is done in the word groß, great; of which the superlative is expressed by größt, instead of größest; in the third form, der größte, the greatest, for größeste. The same contraction may be observed in other adjectives, though not so commonly: as in süß, sup. third form, der süßste, the sweetest, for süßeste; blaß, sup. der blaßte, the palest, for blasseste; but it is not to be commended. Der beste, the best, which it is now the established superlative of gut, good, (see Adelung's Orthogr. p. 289), is contracted from besseste, beßte. The superlative of words ending in *isch*, is supposed to be rendered less disagreeable to the ear, by substituting *t* for *est*: as of viehisch, beastly, sup. third form, der viehischte, the most beastly, for der viehischeste; of bäurisch,

clownish, der bäuriſchte, for bäuriſcheſte; bübiſch, rascally, der bübiſchte. But even by such means, words of that description cannot be made tolerable; and it is best, if possible, to supersede them.

5. The superlative degree is, like the comparative, susceptible of the four forms of inflection; though most frequently used in the third, with the definite article: as, der ſchönſte, the handsomest; der neueſte, the newest: gen. des ſchönſten, des neueſten; dat. dem ſchönſten, dem neueſten, &c. See the declension of adjectives. Next to the third, the first, or adverbial, form is often employed; or to speak more properly, a substitute for that form. This consists in the dative case singular, of the third form, with the word am prefixed: as, Am ſchönſten, am neueſten. The following phrases, *it is finest*, *it is newest*, would be expressed by, es iſt am ſchönſten, am neueſten. This circumlocution is to be thus explained. Am, is put for, an dem; an being a preposition, which denotes *on*, *nearest*, or *next to:* and dem, the dative of the definite article: consequently, am ſchönſten literally signifies next to that which is finest; and afterwards simply marks the superlative degree, in its first form, without any collateral meaning It will be useful to subjoin a few examples: Dieſes Frauenzimmer iſt am ſchönſten, wenn ſie ſich nicht ſchminkt, this lady is handsomest, or most handsome, when she does not paint herself. Jener Redner iſt immer am größten, wenn er ſich an die Leidenſchaften wendet, that orator is always greatest, when he addresses the passions. Es wird am beſten ſeyn, heute zu Hauſe zu bleiben, it will be best to stay at home to-day. Derjenige Mann iſt am weiſeſten, welcher ein ruhi-

ges Leben führt, that man is wisest, or the most wise, who leads a quiet life. Diejenige Frau ist am klügsten, welche ihren Haushalt gut besorgt, that woman is most prudent, who takes good care of her domestick concerns. Dasjenige Kind ist am liebenswürdigsten, welches folgsam ist, that child is most amiable, which is tractable and obedient. Diejenigen Leute sind am vernünftigsten, welche Vorurtheilen am wenigsten unterworfen sind, those people are most reasonable, who are least subject to prejudices. The same ideas might have been answered by the third form. Instead of, *it will be best to stay at home*, the turn might have been, *it will be the best thing to stay at home:* Es wird das beste seyn, &c. For, *that woman is most prudent, who*, &c. you might say, *that woman is the most prudent, who*, &c. Diejenige Frau ist die klügste, welche, &c.—The prepositions auf, upon, and zu, to, are for a similar purpose, connected with the superlative degree. They are then, like an, contracted with the article: auf das, into aufs; zu dem, into zum. But their signification is not so extensive, as that of an. They only describe the manner, in which a thing is done, or exists: for example, Aufs schönste eingerichtet, arranged in the finest manner; aufs vollkommenste ausgeführt, executed in the most perfect manner; Auf governs the accusative, and the adjective, therefore, ends in *e*, which is the termination of the neuter of that case, in the third form. Zu is joined with the dative: as, Zum schönsten, in the finest manner; zum vollkommensten, in the most perfect manner. The use of the two prepositions last mentioned, especially of zu, is not so current, nor so classical, as that of the former.—The first, or adverbial, form of the superlative degree, in its original state,

perhaps only appears in the word allerliebst, most lovely of all: as, das ist allerliebst, that is most lovely. But even here, it is not quite pure; the word aller, disguises it nearly as much as am, aufs, or zum. Liebst, by itself, for ex. das ist liebst, never occurs. If it be remarked, that the following, äußerst, höchst, jüngst, längst, meist, gehorsamst, gnädigst, freundlichst, verbindlichst, verbundenst, and others, are superlatives of the first form; it must be considered, that they are mere adverbs, when thus used, and have not the nature of adjectives. They will be mentioned in their proper place.—The second form of the superlative is chiefly to be seen in the vocative case, which is like the nominative: as, sing. Liebster Bruder, dearest brother; theuerste Schwester, dearest sister; schönstes Kind, most charming child; plur. würdigste Freunde, most worthy friends.—In the fourth form the superlative is to be found, after the personal and possessive pronouns;* as, Ich ärmster Mensch, I poorest man; du theuerster Bruder, thou dearest brother; du liebste Schwester, thou dearest sister; ihr schönsten Kinder, ye most charming children; mein liebster Bruder, my dearest brother; deine liebste Schwester, thy dearest sister; and so with the rest.

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V. The word aller, which means 'of all,' being the genitive plural of all, all, is sometimes prefixed to the superlative degree to increase its force: as, der allerbeste Mann, the very best man; die allerschönste Frau, the most beautiful woman of all.

Additional Remarks on the Comparison of Adjectives.

I. Some adjectives do not admit the degrees of comparison, by means of additional terminations. They are: angst, bereit, eingedenk, feind, gar, gram, recht, unrecht, theilhaft. Others refuse it partly. Of this kind are the participles; and the adjectives ending in haft, ich, isch: which only suffer the comparative degree in the first form. It may be permitted to say, gehärteter, gegründeter, in the first form, more hardened, more grounded, from the participles gehärtet, gegründet; but the ear would be offended at the sound of the following forms: gehärteter, gehärtetere, gehärteteres; der gehärtetere; ein gegründeteter, eine gegründetere, ein gegründeteres. Thus in the adjectives, lebhaft, gewissenhaft, lächerlich, veränderlich, bäurisch, verschwenderisch, and others it is allowable to make use of the first form: lebhafter, gewissenhafter, lächerlicher, verschwenderischer, bäurischer; but the subsequent forms, ein lebhafterer, der lächerlichere, &c. could not be endured. The superlative degree is not liable to the same objection. It is not inconsistent with good language, to say, der lebhafteste, der lächerlichste, and even der gegründetste, der gehärtetste: though the adjectives in *isch*, which are, of themselves, disharmonious, produce a sound still more unpleasant, when augmented by the hissing termination of the superlative: as, der bäuerischeste.

II. When the degrees of comparison are not expressed by the termination, certain adverbs are made use of to convey the notion; namely, mehr, more, for the comparative; and am meisten, most, for the superlative. For example: feind, inimical; mehr feind, more inimical; am meisten feind, most hostile; theilhaft, partaking; mehr theilhaft, am meisten theilhaft. Those adverbs are sometimes put to adjectives, which are capable of the comparative terminations, when, by this expedient, any harshness, or abruptness of sound may be obviated. Thus in wahr, true. comp. wahrer, sup. wahrest; where mehr wahr, am meisten wahr, may be used: as, dieses ist noch mehr wahr als jenes, this is still more true than that.—After the deduction of the few words which have been mentioned, all the existing adjectives form their degrees of comparison by means of the terminations; for which the adverbs mehr, am meisten, cannot be arbitrarily substituted. However, when two different adjectives are to be compared with one another, it must be done by mehr, as, Er ist mehr lustig als traurig, he is more merry than sad; Augustus war mehr glücklich als tapfer, Augustus was more successful than brave. This comparison could not be effected by the termination of either adjective.

III. The following words are irregular, in their comparison: Gut, good, comp. besser, sup. am besten; viel, much, comp. mehr, sup. am mehrsten, or am meisten.—The comparative degree, mehr, when put in a declinable form, generally receives, besides the usual terminations, the syllable *re* before them, The second form of mehr, should be, mehrer, mehre, mehres, plur. mehre;

but it is commonly expressed by, mehrerer, mehrere, mehreres, plur. mehrere; ein mehreres, for ein mehres. This seems to have arisen from a misconception of the declinable ending*; and might be laid aside, without impropriety. Of the superlatives, mehrsten and meisten, the first may be preferred, as more regular, but the last is more common.—The comparative and superlative degrees of the adverb bald, which are eher, am ehesten, appear sometimes in the situation of adjectives.—Hoch, high, makes the comparative höher, exchanging the guttural, in the middle, for the simple aspirate; but the superlative, am höchsten. On the other hand, nahe, near, has in the comparative näher, and in the superlative am nächsten, assuming, in the latter, the guttural instead of the mere h. These, however, can hardly be called irregular comparisons.

IV. Some adjectives have the appearance of the comparative degree, though their signification does not correspond with it. They are, der mittlere, the middle one; der äußere, the exterior; der innere, the interior; der obere, the superior; der untere, the inferior; der vordere, the anterior; der hintere, the posterior. They all take

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* As most adjectives of the comparative degree, in the second form, terminate in *erer*, *ere*, *eres*, it was erroneously imagined, that mehr ought to do the same. It was forgotten, that this word (probably contracted from meher), was already a comparative, and therefore only entitled to the additional endings *er*, *e*, *es*.

the superlative: as, der mittleste, der äußerste, der innerste, &c.

V. The comparative, and superlative degree may be used substantively, some other word being understood: as, der Höchste, (understood Gott) the supreme being: mein Bester, (understood, Mann, or Freund), my good man, my good friend.

SECTION VI.

THE NUMERALS.

They are divided into *Cardinal* and *Ordinal Numbers*.

A. CARDINAL NUMBERS.

1. Ein, eine, ein, or einer, eine, eines.
2. Zwey.
3. Drey.
4. Vier.
5. Fünf.
6. Sechs.
7. Sieben.
8. Acht.
9. Neun.
10. Zehen, or Zehn.
11. Elf, or eilf.
12. Zwölf.
13. Dreyzehen, or dreyzehn.
14. Vierzehn.
15. Funfzehn.
16. Sechzehn.
17. Siebenzehn, or siebzehn.
18. Achtzehn.
19. Neunzehn.
20. Zwanzig.
21. Ein und Zwanzig.
22. Zwey und zwanzig.
23. Drey und zwanzig.
24. Vier und zwanzig.
25. Fünf und zwanzig.
26. Sechs und zwanzig.
27. Sieben und zwanzig.

28. Acht und zwanzig.
29. Neun und zwanzig.
30. Dreißig.
31. Ein und dreißig.
32. Zwey und dreißig, &c.
40. Vierzig.
41. Ein und vierzig, &c.
50. Funfzig.
60. Sechzig.
70. Siebenzig, or siebzig.
80. Achtzig.
90. Neunzig.
100. Hundert.
101. Hundert und eins.
102. Hundert und zwey, &c.
200. Zwey hundert.
300. Drey hundert.
1000. Tausend.
10000. Zehn tausend.
100000. Hundert tausend.
A million. Eine Million.

1799.

Ein tausend sieben hundert und neun und neunzig.

1800.

Achtzehn hundert, or Tausend (ein tausend) acht hundert.

1816.

Achtzehn hundert und sechzehn.

Observations.

I. Ein, eine, ein, one, is declined like the indefinite article. It is, in fact, the same word, used with a different power. As a numeral, it is pronounced with a stronger accent: as, ein Mann, eine Frau. When it stands by itself, but with a reference to a substantive, somewhere expressed, the termination *er* is added, in the nominative singular, for the masculine; and *es*, for the neuter gender, in the nominative and accusative. For example: Haben Sie einen Hut? have you got a hat? hier ist einer, here is *one*: Hut, hat, which is understood

by reference, is of the masculine gender; and therefore it is einer. Haben Sie ein Messer? have you got a knife? hier ist eines, here is *one*, namely, Messer, which being of the neuter gender, the numeral becomes eines. Einer der Vorwürfe, welche man dem Verfasser macht, *one* of the objections, which are made to the author, &c. The negative adjective, Kein, keine, kein, no one, none, is treated in the same manner: for example, kein Fürst, no prince; keiner von seinen Nachfolgern, no one of his successors.—Those additional syllables can, in such a connection, never be dispensed with, though from carelessness, or ignorance, they are sometimes neglected*. When the numeral has no reference to a substantive expressed, but serves merely to count, they are not so absolutely required: yet in simply telling the numbers, as *one, two, three, four*, &c. it is usual to give to ein the additional termination of the neuter, but generally contracted, Eins, zwey, drey, vier, &c.—Ein, eine, ein, may have the definite article before it; then it is declined in the third form of adjectives, viz.

Singular.

Nom.	Der eine,	die eine,	das eine, the one
Gen.	Des einen,	der einen,	des einen, of
Dat.	Dem einen,	der einen,	dem einen, to
Acc.	Den einen,	die eine,	das eine, the one

* Something similar appertains to the possessive pronouns, as will be seen in the subsequent pages.

The plural may be used for the purpose of distinguishing certain classes of individual objects: as, *the ones, and the others;* that means, the one set, and the other. Nom. die einen, the ones; gen. der einen; dat. den einen; acc. die einen. Pronouns are also prefixed; as, my *one,* this *one,* which *one.* Then ein, is considered as an adjective, and put in that form of declension, which is required by each respective pronoun.

The German numeral never serves in a suppletive capacity, as the English *one,* in *a good one, this one, that one.* Here the *number* is not meant, but *one* fills the place of the substantive, which is understood, since those words *a good, this, that,* in English, cannot well stand absolute, without something following. This peculiarity is unknown to the German language; but the adjectives, as well as the pronouns, are placed by themselves, without any such support.

2. Zwey, and drey, now and then indicate their genitive and dative, by additional terminations: gen. Zweyer, dreyer, dat. zweyen, dreyen. This is necessary, when those cases are not otherwise distinguished; as, die Stärke zweyer Männer, the strength of two men; die Macht dreyer Könige, the power of three kings. In these examples, the genitive case could not be recognized, except by the endings of the numerals: but if the article, an adjective, or a pronoun were present, by whose endings the genitive might be known, it would be improper to vary the termination of the numerals: as, die Stärke der zwey Männer, the strength of the two men; die Macht dieser drey Könige, the power of these three kings; die Treue

zwey aufrichtiger Freunde, the faith of two sincere friends. Here the genitive case is determined by the article, the pronoun, and the adjective; the numerals, therefore, need not be inflected. The declinable ending of the dative is not required, before substantives: for that case is always sufficiently expressed by the latter. But when the numeral is not followed by a substantive, the termination should be added, as a sign of a dative: for instance, Ich habe es zweyen gegeben, I have given it to two; ich habe es dreyen mitgetheilt, I have communicated it to three. Likewise after prepositions, mit zweyen, with two: von dreyen, from three. The other numerals all admit the termination of the dative, in the same circumstances: as, Ich habe es vieren gegeben, I have given it to four; ich habe es fünfen gesagt, I have told it to five; ich habe es zwanzigen mitgetheilt, I have communicated it to twenty, &c. And with prepositions: for example, auf allen vieren, upon all fours; mit sechsen, with six; von achten, of eight, &c. Those which end in *en*, do not receive the additional termination; as, sieben, zehen, dreyzehen, &c. The termination of the genitive is only peculiar to zwey, and drey; and cannot be assumed by any of the rest. Its office must be supplied by a preposition, such as von, or some other mode of expression, when the case is not of itself discernible.—In hundert, and tausend, the dative is not to be signified by the addition of *en*, hunderten, tausenden: for this would make the number plural, and denote hundreds, and thousands. Recourse may, upon this occasion, perhaps, be had to the indefinite article, as in English: for instance, Ich habe es einem hundert gegeben, I have given it to *a* hundred; ich habe es einem tausend mit-

getheilt, I have communicated it to *a* thousand; though, after all, this would not be so proper, nor so truly German, as to add some substantive, for the sake of distinguishing the case: as, ich habe es hundert Leuten gesagt, I have told it to a hundred people: ich habe es tausend Leuten gegeben, I have given it to a thousand people.—In compound numbers, the termination *en*, is not added: as, Vor tausend sieben hundert und neun und neunzig, before the year 1799.

3. It is a property of the language of Upper Germany, to assign three genders to the second numeral, namely zween (or zweene) for the masculine; zwo, for the feminine; and zwey for the neuter. But in High German, no distinction of gender is admitted, in the cardinal numbers, except in *One*.—Beide signifies *both* but with the article, die beiden, it is very frequently put for die zwey, the *two*.*

4. In speaking substantively of the cardinal numbers, for instance, as the figures in cards, they are made to be of the feminine gender, the word, die Zahl, the number, being, probably, understood: eine Ein or Eins, a one; eine Zwey, a two, a figure two: eine Drey, eine Vier; and they end in the plural, in *en*, according to the first declension of substantives: as, zwey Einen, two ones; zwey Vieren, two fours, two figures of four; drey Sechsen, three sixes; vier Neunen, four nines; alle Achten, all the eights.

5. Hundert and Tausend, are used as substantives, with

* See Ex. p. 219, n. 6. p. 224, n. 10, p. 231, n. 2.

the neuter article: as, das hundert, the hundred; das Tausend, the thousand.—In English, the numbers *Hundred*, and *Thousand*, when placed before any substantive, have, generally, the indefinite article prefixed: as, *a hundred pounds*, *a thousand dollars*. In German that article is not admitted: but you say, hundert Pfund, tausend Thaler.

6. The reader will, of his own accord, have taken notice of the mode of forming the decimal numbers, so that it will not be necessary to detain him by any farther remarks.

B. ORDINAL NUMBERS.

These are declined like adjectives, and may be put in the four forms. The most usual manner of representing them, is in the third, with the definite article.

The first	Der erste.	The 13th.	Der dreyzehnte.
2d.	Der zweyte.	14th.	Der vierzehnte.
3d.	Der dritte.	15th.	Der funfzehnte.
4th.	Der vierte.	16th.	Der sechzehnte.
5th.	Der fünfte.	17th.	Der siebenzehnte. or siebzehnte.
6th.	Der sechste.	18th.	Der achtzehnte.
7th.	Der siebente, or siebte.	19th.	Der neunzehnte.
8th.	Der achte.	20th.	Der zwanzigste.
9th.	Der neunte.	21st.	Der ein und zwanzigste.
10th.	Der zehnte.	22nd.	Der zwey und zwanzigste.
11th.	Der elfte, or eilfte.		
12th.	Der zwölfte.		

The 23rd. Der drey und zwanzigste.
24th. Der vier und zwanzigste.
25th. Der fünf und zwanzigste.
26th. Der sechs und zwanzigste.
27th Der sieben und zwanzigste.
28th. Der acht und zwanzigste.
29th. Der neun und zwanzigste.
30th. Der dreißigste.
31st. Der ein und dreißigste.
32nd. Der zwey und dreißigste, &c.
40th. Der vierzigste.
41st. Der ein und vierzigste, &c.

The 50th. Der funfzigste.
60th. Der sechzigste.
70th. Der siebenzigste or siebzigste.
80th. Der achtzigste.
90th. Der neunzigste.
100th. Der hundertste.
101st. Der hundert und erste.
102nd. Der hundert und zweyte.
103rd. Der hundert und dritte, &c.
200th. Der zwey hundertste.
300th. Der drey hundertste.
1000th. Der tausendste.
The one thousand seven hundred and ninety-ninth. Der tausend sieben hundert und neun und neunzigste.

Observations.

1. In the formation of the ordinals, the first and third numbers are irregular; but the rest follow a certain rule: viz. the termination *te* is added to the cardinals, from two to nineteen, inclusive; and *ste*, from twenty to the last.

2. The ordinals may be brought under all the forms

of adjectives. The first, or adverbial, however, is not usual. For these numbers resemble the superlative degree, in their nature, and strictly speaking, do not allow that form. But a substitute for it may be employed, as in the superlative degree,* by means of the preposition An: as, Am ersten, first; am dritten, third: or the idea may be expressed by the third form, as, *he is the second, the third*, instead of, *he is second, third.* The second form would be: erster, erste, erstes; zweyter zweyte, zweytes. Gen. erstes, erster, erstes; zweytes, zweyter, zweytes, &c. Examples: erster Abschnitt, zweyte Seite, drittes Capitel, first section, second page, third chapter. Fourth form: Ein zweyter, eine zweyte, ein zweytes; ein dritter, eine dritte, ein drittes. Gen. eines zweyten, einer zweyten, eines zweyten, &c. In the same manner, after personal and possessive pronouns: as, Ich dritter Officier, I third officer: mein vierter Irrthum, my fourth errour; unser fünftes Glas, our fifth glass: ihre sechste Bouteille, their sixth bottle. The third form, of course, follows after demonstrative, relative and interrogative pronouns.

3. In compound numbers, the last only assumes the shape of an ordinal; the foregoing remain cardinals: as, der sechs und neunzigste, the ninety-sixth; der tausend sieben hundert und sechs und achtzigste, the one thousand seven hundred and eighty-sixth.

4. Der andere is used as synonymous with der zweyte. The adjective Ander, corresponds both to the Latin *alius*,

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* See p. 205.

The 23rd. Der drey und zwanzigste.
24th. Der vier und zwanzigste.
25th. Der fünf und zwanzigste.
26th. Der sechs und zwanzigste.
27th Der sieben und zwanzigste.
28th. Der acht und zwanzigste.
29th. Der neun und zwanzigste.
30th. Der dreißigste.
31st. Der ein und dreißigste.
32nd. Der zwey und dreißigste, &c.
40th. Der vierzigste.
41st. Der ein und vierzigste, &c.

The 50th. Der funfzigste.
60th. Der sechzigste.
70th. Der siebenzigste or siebzigste.
80th. Der achtzigste.
90th. Der neunzigste.
100th. Der hundertste.
101st. Der hundert und erste.
102nd. Der hundert und zweyte.
103rd. Der hundert und dritte, &c.
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* See p. 205.

other, and to *alter;* and in the latter sense, it serves for the second ordinal number.

Additional Remarks on the Numerals.

Besides the two divisions, into cardinals and ordinals, the numbers suffer a variety of modifications, which it will be proper to notice, at the conclusion of this section.

I. *Partitive* numerals, which are in Latin expressed by *bini, terni, quaterni, quini, deni,* &c. and in English by, *two and two, three and three;* or, *two at a time, three at a time, four at a time,* &c. or, *every two, every three, every four, every five,* &c. The Germans like the English, avail themselves, for this purpose of the conjunction und, and: as, Zwey und zwey, drey und drey; or they say, Je zwey, je drey, je vier, je zehen, je zwanzig, je dreißig, je vierzig, je funfzig, &c. Je, is an adverb, signifying *ever,* and here denotes, *at a time.*

II. *Distinctives.* These are, in English, *firstly, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, fifthly;* or, *in the first place, in the second place, in the third place.* In German: Erstlich, or erstens; zweytens, drittens, viertens, fünftens, sechstens, siebentens, or siebtens; achtens, neuntens, zehntens, elftens, zwölftens, dreyzehntens, zwanzigstens, &c. Also thus: zum ersten, zum zweyten, (or zum andern,) zum dritten, zum vierten, zum fünften, &c. Those in *ens* are the genitive cases of the ordinals, third form; *s,* at the end, being added, instead of the article, des ersten, des zweyten, des dritten, &c. And some substantive may be understood, after it: as, des ersten Ortes, or ersten Ortes; zwey-

ten Ortes, &c. in the first place, &c. The genitive case is occasionally found, in German, where a preposition ought to be supplied. The other mode is with the dative, and the preposition zu before it: zum, for zu dem. Here likewise, a substantive may be inserted.

III. *Dimidiatives*, or numbers that halve. They are composed of the ordinals, and the word halb, half. Their signification is extraordinary: for example, Drittehalb, literally, the third (number) half, of der dritte, and halb, means *two and a half*, two whole ones, and the third half; viertehalb, of der vierte and halb, *three and a half*, or three whole ones, and the fourth half.* It is not usual to say zweytehalb, but anderthalb, which is *one and half*, or one whole, and the second half. Therefore, the way of proceeding with these numerals, is this: anderthalb 1½, drittehalb 2½, viertehalb 3½, fünftehalb 4½, sechstehalb 5½, siebentehalb, or siebtehalb 6½, achtehalb 7½, neuntehalb 8½, zehntehalb 9½, elftehalb or eilftehalb, 10½, zwölftehalb 11½, dreyzehntehalb 12½, zwanzigstehalb 19½, ein und zwanzigstehalb 20½, &c. For example: Anderthalb Monate, one month and a half; drittehalb Wochen, two weeks and a half; viertehalb Jahre, three years and a half; sechstehalb Guineen, five guineas and a half. They are not declined, though they may, perhaps, sometimes admit the termination *en*, in the dative, when they are put absolutely In anderthalb, which comes from der andere, the *e*, in the middle, is supplanted by a *t*, of which the reason seems to be,

* Something analogous to this exists in the Greek language.

that it may be assimilated to the other numbers, which all contain a *t*.

IV. *Variatives*, which denote a variety, according to number. They are made by adding *erley* to the cardinals; as, Zweyerley, of two kinds; dreyerley, of three kinds; viererley, of four kinds; fünferley, of five kinds; sechserley, of six kinds; siebenerley, of seven kinds: zwanzigerley, of twenty kinds, &c. For example: Dreyerley Wein, wine of three different sorts; zweyerley Münze, coin of two different sorts; sechserley Bänder, ribbons of six different kinds. In the same manner are used: allerley, of all kinds; einerley, of the same kind; mancherley, of several kinds; vielerley, of many kinds.—The variatives are not declined.

V. Certain adjectives are formed out of numerals: for example, Einfach, simple, uncompounded; zweyfach, twofold; dreyfach, threefold: vierfach, fünffach, sechsfach, zehnfach, &c. Of nearly the same signification are those ending in *fältig*: as, zweyfältig, dreyfältig, vierfältig, &c.—but einfältig, denotes simple, artless, silly. Similar compositions arise from the cardinal numbers, and substantives: as, Zweypfündig, of two pounds; dreypfündig, of three pounds; vier und zwanzigpfündig, of twenty-four pounds—from zwey, drey, vier und zwanzig, and das Pfund, the pound. Dreyeckig, of three corners, or angles, three-cornered, triangular; viereckig, of four angles, square; fünfeckig, of five corners—from drey, vier, fünf, and die Ecke, the corner. These, and others of the like description, are inflected, according to the four forms of adjectives.

VI. The fractional numbers, with the exception of

halb, half, are derived from the ordinals, by the addition of *l* to the nominative of the third form. For example: from der dritte, the third, ein Drittel, a third part, or one third; from der vierte, ein Viertel, a fourth part, a quarter. In the same manner, ein Fünftel, $\frac{1}{5}$th; ein Sechstel, $\frac{1}{6}$th; ein Siebentel, or Siebtel, $\frac{1}{7}$th; ein Zehntel, $\frac{1}{10}$th; ein Zwanzigstel, $\frac{1}{20}$th; &c. So in the plural: zwey Drittel, $\frac{2}{3}$ds; drey Viertel, $\frac{3}{4}$ths; fünf Sechstel, $\frac{5}{6}$ths; sieben Zehntel, $\frac{7}{10}$ths; &c. They are regarded as substantives, and of the neuter gender. The letter *l*, which is added, is a corruption of the word das Theil, the part; and it should properly be das dritte Theil, the third part; das vierte Theil, the fourth part. This was contracted into one word. Drittheil, Viertheil; and at last into, Drittel, Viertel.—Halb, half, is an adjective; and from it die Hälfte, (a substantive), the half of a thing, is deduced.

CHAPTER III.

ON THE PRONOUN.

Containing:

1. *The Personal and Reciprocal Pronouns.*
2. *The Possessive.*
3. *The Demonstrative.*
4. *The Relative and Interrogative.*
5. *Miscellaneous Pronouns.*

SECTION I.

OF THE PRONOUNS PERSONAL; AND RECIPROCAL.

First Personal, Ich, I—plural, Wir, we.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Ich, I.	Wir, we.
Gen.	Meiner, or mein, of me	Unser, of us.
Dat.	Mir, to me.	Uns, to us.
Acc.	Mich, me.	Uns, us.

Second Personals Du, thou—plural, Ihr, you.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Du, thou.	Ihr, you.
Gen.	Deiner, or dein, of thee	Euer, of you.
Dat.	Dir, to thee.	Euch, to you.
Acc.	Dich, thee.	Euch, you.

Third Personal, Er, masculine, he: Sie, feminine, she: Es, neuter, it—plural, Sie, they, for all genders.

Singular.

Nom.	Er, he;	Sie, she;	Es,
Gen.	Seiner, or sein, of him;	Ihrer, or ihr, of her;	Seiner, or sein, of it.
Dat.	Ihm, to him;	Ihr, to her;	Ihm, to it.
Acc.	Ihn, him;	Sie, her;	Es, it.

Plural.

Nom. Sie, they, (for all genders).
Gen. Ihrer, of them.
Dat. Ihnen, to them
Acc. Sie, them.

Reciprocal for the third person.

Singular.

Nom. None.
Gen. Seiner, or sein, of himself; Ihrer, or ihr, of herself; Seiner, or sein, of itself.
Dat. Sich, to himself, to herself, to itself.
Acc. Sich, himself, herself, itself.

Plural.

Nom. None.
Gen. Ihrer, of themselves.
Dat. Sich, to themselves.
Acc. Sich, themselves.

Observations.

1. The genitive case of these pronouns, in both numbers, is limited in its use. It occurs after certain verbs:

for example, er lachet meiner, he laughs at me; er spottet ihrer, he mocks them: ich schäme mich deiner, I am ashamed of thee; erbarme dich meiner, have mercy upon me. The genitive of the plural is put after numerals, and after the words viel and wenig:* for example, Unser zwölf, twelve of us; ihrer zwanzig, twenty of them; unser wenig, few of us; ihrer viel, many of them. The expression Unser einer, which signifies, a person like ourselves, one of our condition, one like us, or one like me, belongs to the same construction. In the Lord's prayer, the genitive unser is, according to the earliest translation, governed by a substantive, Vater: viz. Vater unser, Father of us, instead of Unser Vater, our Father; which is a close imitation of the Greek, πάτερ ἡμῶν—The genitive is likewise joined with some prepositions, viz. wegen, halben, willen, denoting *on account of.* Then it generally coalesces with them into one word, by means of connecting letters; as, meinetwegen, on my account; seinetwegen, on his account; ihretwegen, on her account; unsertwegen, or unserntwegen, on our account: euretwegen, or eurentwegen, on your account; ihretwegen, or ihrentwegen, on their account. Thus, meinethalben, deinethalben, meinetwillen, or um meinetwillen, &c. Otherwise the preposition von, with the dative, is employed to signify the case *of:* as, Von mir, of me; von uns, of us; von dir, of thee; von euch, of you: von ihm, of him; von ihr, of her; von ihnen, of them.

2. In addressing one another in conversation, or in

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* See Additional Remarks on the Adjective, p. 195.

writing, the Germans do not confine themselves to the second personal pronoun; but like the Italians, Spaniards, and Portuguese, they have adopted the third. Besides this, they apply the plural number to a single person. If it be an anomaly to speak to *one* as if he were more than one, which is done in English, by saying *you*, instead of *thou*: it is still more strange to address him, as if he were not the person spoken to, which is the case in the use of the third personal. How can it, for instance, be supposed, that in this question, *What is he doing?* the person is meant, of whom that question is asked, and that it stands for, *What art thou doing?* And if it be but one person, it appears absurd to assign to him the pronoun, in the plural number; as, *What are they doing?* This, however, is the fact, in the German language. The Italians, Spaniards, and Portuguese have another monstrosity, in their polite manner of speaking, namely, that of bestowing on the person whom they address, although it be a man, a feminine pronoun. That perverseness has sprung from the corruption of the middle ages. At that tasteless period, new terms were introduced into the Latin tongue, in the form of titles and appellations, such as *Majestas*, *Celsitas*, *Serenitas*, *Excellentia*, *Gratia*, and the like; and these figures of adulation were, with various modification, received into the modern languages of Europe. The Spaniards produced their *Merced*, (in *Vuessa Merced*, or *Usted*, your Mercy, your Grace); and the Italians their *Signoria* (in *Vossignoria*, your Lordship, your Ladyship). Those words were first intended as abstracted representations of the virtues, and qualities

of the person, to whom they were given: but, gradually, the person was confounded with his attribute and this was addressed instead of the person. It was accompanied by the possessive pronouns of the persons, as *your eminence, his grace, their excellencies, her highness,* in the same manner as any common appellative, for example, *your father, your mother.* In saying, *his eminence has written,* the analysis of the idea is this: He, that eminent man, or he, who is an eminent man, has written. For, *your highness has conferred a favour upon me,* the fundamental notion is: Thou, who art, or whom I respect as, an illustrious person, hast conferred upon me a favour.—The third person of the verb occupied the place of the second. Having arrived at this, some nations went a step farther. The third person, they took for granted, was a mark of respect; and they observed, that those appellatives, with which it was connected, were of the feminine gender, as *celsitas, serenitas, excellentia, &c.* Therefore, when they had occasion to use a pronoun, they assumed the third personal of the feminine gender. Thus the mystery of the usual mode of address, in the Italian, and other languages, is cleared up. The French and English did not go that length. For though they received such titles, as your majesty, your highness, your lordship, in the third person; yet, when a pronoun was wanted, they turned back to the second: as, I told your majesty, and *you* were pleased to direct, &c.; when I waited on your grace, *you* desired, &c.; in which instances, the Italians would say, *she* (Lat. *ea,* namely, *majestas, gratia*) was pleased, *she* desired.—As in the Italian, Spanish, and

Portuguese tongues, the expression *Vossignoria*, and *Usted*, were, by degrees, applied indifferently, for the sole purpose of civility; the third of the feminine gender became a general form of politeness.—This notion, concerning the third person, was admitted by the Germans. But they overlooked its origin, and no longer associated with those substantives, to which it owed its existence. They deemed the third person of itself sufficient; and therefore appropriated the masculine pronoun, Er, he, to a man; and Sie, she, to a woman. Not contented with this, they introduced another innovation. With the third person they combined the plural number, which had previously been adopted in the second person, as a refinement in speaking: *you*, for *thou*. In the same way, Sie, they, was substituted for Er, he, or Sie, she. At length, the following practice has been established. The plural of the third personal, Sie, is the polite mode of address, made use of by, and to, people of education. For example, instead of *How do you do?* the Germans, in their language, will say, *How do they do?* It will be remarked, that this may sometimes be mistaken for a real third person: and confusion may hence arise. However, the context, in most places, will show who is meant: and where that is insufficient, a gesture, or some other means of explanation, may make the person understood. In writing, misconceptions of that kind must be obviated by clearness of expression: besides which, the pronoun of address is commonly begun with a capital, whereas the mere third personal has only a small letter, for its initial, unless it be at the beginning of a sentence.—Notwithstanding this new manner of speaking,

the former ones, *thou*, *you*, *he*, *she*, are still in use, but assigned with a particular discrimination; respecting which a few words must be added, since it is become necessary, for the present language, to distinguish them properly. The singular of the second person, Du, thou, is first of all applied to the Supreme Being: because upon him we poor mortals can bestow none of those vain, and worthless titles, with which we decorate our fellow creatures. In the next place, it implies familiarity, founded upon affection, and fondness. This is the pleasing appellation, by which parents speak to their children, and brothers, and sisters, to one another. It is the language of love, and conjugal union. With friends, it is a token of intimacy, and confidence: and though it is as much abused, as the name of friend itself, yet it is often found to denote the close harmony of congenial souls.* Children are sometimes allowed to speak to their parents in the same manner;† though, in general, the

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* See a charming passage in Schiller's Don Carlos, at the end of the first act—I mean, in the original; for the translations give but a faint, and imperfect idea. It begins thus:

Und jetzt noch eine Bitte, Lieber—Nenne
Mich Du—u. s. w.

"And now one more request, my dearest friend—Do call me *thou*, &c.

† I found, in my last visit to Germany, since writing the above, that this practice of speaking, between children and parents, had very much gained ground, and

third person plural, Sie, is preferred, as more respectful. Lastly, Du, is the reverse of ceremonious politeness, and thus it is applied, where particular distinctions are laid aside. Therefore, it is commonly made use of, in speaking to little children: and to people in very subordinate situations; for example, by the officer to his soldiers. It is often heard in quarrels, and opprobrious language, when the considerations of decorum, and propriety, are disregarded. All these significations may be reduced to the notion of familiarity, differently modified.* The plural Ihr, *you*, when referred to one person, generally involves the idea of that familiarity, which is used towards inferiors; for instance, by a master towards his menials: it is likewise bestowed upon individuals of low condition.—Since the plural of the third personal was adopted, as the polite mode of address, the singular has been reserved for the lower stations of life: namely, Er, he, for a male; and Sie, she, for a female.

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was, in some parts, almost becoming general. I am among those, who do not approve it. For though love, affection, and confidence should exist between children and parents, yet this particular relation seems to me to require a mixture of veneration and respect, on the part of the children, (according to the precept, *Honour thy father and thy mother*), and not to be improved by familiarity.

* There is a particular verb, which expresses the use of the second personal, viz. duzen, answering to the French *tutoyer*; in English, *to thou*, according to Shakspeare.

In this manner, the master and mistress address their servants. Thus a person of rank, in the consciousness of his pre-eminence, will speak to trades-people, and the prince to his subjects. Yet those persons frequently forget the comparative height, on which they stand, and are carried along with the stream of general politeness. Servants, however, are seldom spoken to in any other way, than the singular of the third personal: also those in a mean situation, such as common handicraftsmen, peasants, labourers, and others. The plural of the second personal, Ihr, is even a degree below this.*

3. The first and second personal pronouns are also endowed with a reciprocal power. For they are used reciprocally, without any addition; and *myself, thyself, ourself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves,* are expressed by, mich, dich, uns, euch. For the third person, there is a distinct reciprocal, which is mentioned above. In this respect, the German language differs from the English, in which the reciprocals are composed of the possessive pronouns, and the termination *self*, plur. *selves*. The Germans have the word, selbst, or selber: but this expresses the Latin *ipse*, the French *même*, the Italian *stesso*, or *medesimo*, &c. and may be annexed, not only to pronouns, but to any substantive: Ich selbst, I myself, that means: I, in my own person, no one else; du selbst, thou thyself, er selbst, he himself; wir selbst, ihr selbst, sie selbst.

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* The Danish language uses these pronouns nearly in the same manner. See Tobiesen's Neue Dänische Sprachlehre, p. 34.

Der Mann selbst, the man himself: die Leute selbst, the people themselves, &c. It is to be observed, that when the third personal serves for the pronoun of address, the third reciprocal must correspond with it: for instance, Setze Er sich, seat yourself, sit down, to a man of inferior condition, literally let him seat himself; setze Sie sich, to a woman of an inferior description, literally, let her seat herself; setzen Sie sich, the plural, as a polite mode of speaking, literally, let them seat themselves.

4. The neuter of the third person singular, is used as the subject nominative, before and after verbs, and joined with all genders, and numbers. For example: Es ist der Mann, it is the man; es ist die Frau, it is the woman; es ist das Kind, it is the child. Es sind Männer, they are men; es sind Weiber, they are women. Es ist ein Mann hier, there is a man here; es ist eine Frau hier, there is a woman here; es sind Leute hier, there are people here. After a verb: as, ist es ein Mann? is it a man? sind es Männer oder Weiber? are they men, or women? Ein Mann ist es, it is a *man;* Männer sind es, they are *men.* When thus placed, it either makes a question; or gives an emphasis to the substantive preceding.—It is put, where the English use the adverb *there,* as in this: Es folgten viele, *there* followed many; es starben nur wenige, *there* died but few.

5. Es is sometimes contracted with other pronouns: as, Ichs, for ich es; mirs, for mir es; michs, for mich es. Dirs, for dir es; dichs, for dich es. Ihrs, for ihr es. Likewise with verbs of one syllable: for example, Ists, for ist es; gehts, for geht es;—indeed with any monosyl-

labick words, for instance: conjunctions, Wenns, weils, for wenn es, weil es. But, after all, these contractions are best avoided.

SECTION II.

PRONOUNS POSSESSIVE.

THESE are: Mein, my, or mine; Dein, thy, or thine; Sein, his; Ihr, her, or hers; Sein, its; Unser, our, or ours; Euer, your, or yours; Ihr, their, or theirs. They have three genders, in the singular, and are declined in the same manner as the indefinite article, or the first numeral, viz.

Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	Mein (meiner),	meine,	mein (meines).
Gen.	Meines,	meiner,	meines.
Dat.	Meinem,	meiner,	meinem.
Acc.	Meinen,	meine,	mein (meines).

Plural.

Nom.	Meine.
Gen.	Meiner.
Dat.	Meinen.
Acc.	Meine.

Like this, are varied: Dein, deine, dein; Sein, seine, sein; Unser, unsere, unser; Euer, euere, euer; Ihr, ihre, ihr.

Observations.

1. These pronouns are either joined with substantives: as, Mein Vater, my father; deine Mutter, thy mother; sein Kind, his child, &c.; or they stand by themselves: as, es ist mein, it is mine; es ist dein, it is thine; es ist sein, it is his: es ist ihr, it is hers; es ist unser, it is ours, es ist euer, it is yours; es ist ihr, it is theirs. When put absolutely, or by themselves, as in the examples last mentioned, the masculine gender, in the nominative singular, sometimes receives the termination *er*, and the neuter, in the nominative and accusative, that of *es*. But as these endings are not always added, a rule must be given when that addition should take place, and when not. When simply a possession is signified, without any other idea attending it, neither those terminations, nor that of the feminine gender, are required: as, der Garten ist mein, the garden is mine; die Stube ist dein, the room is yours; das Haus ist sein, the house is his. But when a comparison of possession is implied, those endings are to be subjoined. For example: *whose book is this? it is mine*: this must be, es ist meines, with the additional termination; because a comparison of possession is understood—is it that which belongs to me, or that which belongs to you, or to a third person? the answer is, it is that which belongs to me. Wessen Hund ist das? whose dog is that? Es ist unserer, it is ours.—Wessen Feder ist das? whose pen is that? Es ist seine, it is his. Here the same comparison is involved, and the termination affixed. So in the following: Ist dieses meines oder ihres? is this mine, or theirs?—Nein, es ist deines, oder eures, no, it isthine,

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Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	Mein (meiner),	meine,	mein (meines).
Gen.	Meines,	meiner,	meines.
Dat.	Meinem,	meiner,	meinem.
Acc.	Meinen,	meine,	mein (meines).

Plural.

Nom.	Meine.
Gen.	Meiner.
Dat.	Meinen.
Acc.	Meine.

Like this, are varied: Dein, deine, dein; Sein, seine, sein; Unser, unsere, unser; Euer, euere, euer; Ihr, ihre, ihr.

Observations.

1. These pronouns are either joined with substantives: as, Mein Vater, my father; deine Mutter, thy mother; sein Kind, his child, &c.; or they stand by themselves: as, es ist mein, it is mine; es ist dein, it is thine; es ist sein, it is his: es ist ihr, it is hers; es ist unser, it is ours, es ist euer, it is yours; es ist ihr, it is theirs. When put absolutely, or by themselves, as in the examples last mentioned, the masculine gender, in the nominative singular, sometimes receives the termination *er*, and the neuter, in the nominative and accusative, that of *es*. But as these endings are not always added, a rule must be given when that addition should take place, and when not. When simply a possession is signified, without any other idea attending it, neither those terminations, nor that of the feminine gender, are required: as, der Garten ist mein, the garden is mine; die Stube ist dein, the room is yours; das Haus ist sein, the house is his. But when a comparison of possession is implied, those endings are to be subjoined. For example: *whose book is this? it is mine*: this must be, es ist meines, with the additional termination; because a comparison of possession is understood—is it that which belongs to me, or that which belongs to you, or to a third person? the answer is, it is that which belongs to me. Wessen Hund ist das? whose dog is that? Es ist unserer, it is ours.—Wessen Feder ist das? whose pen is that? Es ist seine, it is his. Here the same comparison is involved, and the termination affixed. So in the following: Ist dieses meines oder ihres? is this mine, or theirs?—Nein, es ist deines, oder eures, no, it isthine,

or yours. This difference in the use of the possessives, though apparently nice, ought to be carefully observed. The rule, as before said, is: when a possession is merely indicated, the pronoun is put without the declinable endings, in the nominative singular, masculine, and the nominative and accusative, neuter; but when a distinction of the possessors is made, the terminations must be added. It is, of course, understood, that the substantive is never expressed, when these terminations are employed.*

2. In unſer, euer, the *e*, before *r*, is frequently left out, when a syllable comes after it: as, Unſrer, unſre, unſres, for unſerer, unſere, unſeres; eurer, eure, eures, for euerer, euere, eueres.

3. The possessive pronouns may be used absolutely, with the definite article: as, der meine, die meine, das meine, mine; der deine, thine; der ſeine, his; der ihre, hers; der unſere, ours; der euere, yours; der ihre, theirs; I say *absolutely*, that means, with no substantive following, though understood. For example: Weſſen Hut iſt das? whose hat is that? Es iſt der meine, it is mine. Weſſen Uhr iſt das? whose watch is that? Es iſt die deine, it is thine. Weſſen Buch iſt das? whose book is that? Es iſt das ſeine, it is his. The French have the same manner of expression, in *le mien*, *le tien*, *le sien*, *le nôtre*, *le vôtre*, *le leur*. Indeed, they cannot put their possessive pronouns

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* Compare with this what is said of the first numeral, p. 212. Obs. 1.

absolutely, unless the article is prefixed. In English, the article cannot be joined with them. But in German, the pronoun possessive absolute may either be used with, or without, the article: nor is it sufficiently defined, where the one or the other, is preferable. It seems solely to depend on the sound, and the structure of the sentence: though at the same time, it cannot be denied, that, when the article is made use of, the possession seems to be more distinctly marked. When united with the article, it is most usual to insert an additional syllable, namely *ig*: as, der meinige, der deinige, der seinige, der ihrige, der unsrige, der eurige, der ihrige. The former, without the syllable *ig*, may be regarded as a peculiarity of the Upper German dialect, though it sometimes occurs in the best writers. The definite article going before, these pronouns are declined after a third form of adjectives.

4. Dero and Ihro, are possessives, used in ancient and ceremonious language. They serve for addressing persons of distinction, being put for Ihr, your, or yours; and are not declined.

5. The possessives are sometimes found after genitive cases, supplying the place of the declinable ending in the substantives: as, des Mann sein Buch, the man his book; for des Mannes Buch; der Frau ihr Kind, the woman's child, for das Kind der Frau. But this is not to be considered as a pure, and classical mode of expression.

SECTION III.

PRONOUNS DEMONSTRATIVE.

UNDER this head are comprised all those, which point out, or determine, the subject, to which they refer. They are: Dieser, diese, dieses, this; Lat. *hic, hæc, hoc.* Jener, jene, jenes, that; Lat. *ille, illa, illud.* Der, die, das, that; Lat. *is, ea, id*, or *iste, ista, istud.* Derjenige, diejenige, dasjenige, that; Lat. *is*, or *ille.* Derselbe, dieselbe, dasselbe, the same; Lat. *idem, eadem, idem.*

A. Those which are properly demonstrative.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Dieser,	diese,	dieses, (or dieß*).	Diese.
Gen.	Dieses,	dieser,	dieses.	Dieser.
Dat.	Diesem,	dieser,	diesem.	Diesen.
Acc.	Diesen,	diese,	dieses, (or dieß).	Diese.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Jener	jene,	jenes.	Jene.
Gen.	Jenes,	jener,	jenes.	Jener.
Dat.	Jenem,	jener,	jenem.	Jenen.
Acc.	Jenen,	jene,	jenes.	Jene

* Dies, is sometimes written for dieß.

Observations.

1. When two demonstratives are put together, in the genitive and dative singular, and the genitive plural, the last of them may assume the termination *en*, instead of *er*, *em*, *es*. By this means the concurrence of the same syllables is avoided, if that should be thought objectionable. For example: die Meinungen dieses und jenen Mannes, (for jenes), the opinion of this and that man; or in the plural, dieser und jenen Männer, of such and such men. Von dieser und jenen Geschichte—(dat. fem. for jener), of this and that history. Aus diesem und jenen Buche, (for jenem), out of such and such a book.

2. The neuter singular of these pronouns, is placed before and after verbs, without any distinction of gender or number, in the same manner as the personal Es. See above.* For instance: dieses, or dieß, ist ein Mann, this is a man; jenes ist eine Frau, that is a woman; dieß sind Menschen, these are men. Was für ein Mann ist dieß? what man is this? Was für eine Frau ist dieß? what woman is this? Was für Leute sind dieß? what people are these?

B. Determinative Pronouns.—They determine, or limit the subject, by causing it to depend upon a relative, which follows.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Der,	die,	das,	Die.
Gen.	Dessen, (or deß),	deren,	dessen, (or deß).	Derer. (or deren.
Dat.	Dem,	der,	dem.	Denen.
Acc.	Den,	die,	das.	Die.

* P. 233.

Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	Derjenige,	diejenige,	dasjenige.
Gen.	Desjenigen,	derjenigen,	desjenigen.
Dat.	Demjenigen,	derjenigen,	demjenigen.
Acc.	Denjenigen,	diejenige,	dasjenige.

Plural.

Nom.	Diejenigen.	Dat.	Denjenigen.
Gen.	Derjenigen.	Acc.	Diejenigen.

Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	Derselbe,	dieselbe,	dasselbe.
Gen.	Desselben,	derselben,	desselben.
Dat.	Demselben,	derselben,	demselben.
Acc.	Denselben,	dieselbe,	dasselbe.

Plural.

Nom.	Dieselben.	Dat.	Denselben.
Gen.	Derselben.	Acc.	Dieselben.

Observations.

1. These pronouns may be joined to substantives, or stand by themselves: as, der Mensch, welcher tugendhaft lebt, ist weise, that man, who lives virtuously, is wise,—der, welcher tugendhaft lebt, ist weise, he who lives virtuously, is wise. Derjenige Mensch, welcher Ungerechtigkeit liebt, ist ein Bösewicht, that man who loves injustice, is a villain.—Derjenige, welcher Ungerechtigkeit liebt, ist ein Bösewicht, he, who loves injustice, &c. Derselbe Mensch, welcher—or Derselbe, welcher.

2. The relative generally follows after derjenige: but not always after der, and derselbe. For example: Es ist der Mann, it is *that* man: es ist derselbe Mann, it is *the same* man. When der is by itself, neither before a substantive, nor followed by a relative, some local adverb is commonly added to it, such as, hier, da, dort: Der da, that person there; der hier, that person here; der dort, that person yonder. Wessen Haus ist das? whose house is that? Dessen da, or deß da, that person's. Wem gehört es? to whom does it belong? dem da, to that person.

3. The genitive case of the demonstrative, der, die, das, in all genders, and both numbers, frequently serves as a substitute for the third possessive pronoun, viz. dessen, deren, dessen, for, his, hers, its; derer, or deren, pl. for their. This will be noticed more at length, in another place.

4. Der, die, das, when serving as a demonstrative pronoun, has a stronger accent, in pronunciation, than the definite article, by which it is distinguished from the latter. The genitive plural should always be derer, to discriminate it from the gen. singular fem.; but, nevertheless, it is frequently expressed by deren, sometimes with a view to ameliorate the sound: as, Deren einer, one of those, for derer einer.—This pronoun, when joined with the adverb eben, signifies *the same.* Lat. *idem*, and is equal in meaning to derselbe: as, Eben der Mann, the same man; eben die Frau, the same woman; eben das Kind, the same child.

5. Das, like dieß, and es, is seen in connection with different numbers, and genders: as, das ist der Mann, that is

the man; das ist die Frau, that is the woman; das sind die Leute, those are the people.

6. Derselbe, is frequently employed with the signification of the third personal, or that of a simple demonstrative, in a similar manner as, in English, *the same*, is sometimes, though not often, used. For example: *I have received the book, and read the same*, for *and read it*. Ich habe das Buch erhalten und dasselbe gelesen. Thus *it*, would be expressed by dasselben. But its peculiar and original power is the Latin *idem*. In that sense, it sometimes has the adverb eben, before it, which gives it additional force, eben derselbe, the very same; and occasionally also the first numeral, which still increases the meaning: as, Ein und eben derselbe, one and the same.

7. Derselbige, dieselbige, dasselbige, *the same*, is synonymous with derselbe, dieselbe, dasselbe. Sometimes it has a strong demonstrative power, signifying *that*; but altogether it is a word, not of the most classical stamp.

8. Der nämliche, and der gleiche, occur as substitutes for derselbe; but the latter not so frequently.

9. Selbiger, e, es, Lat. *is, ea, id*; solcher, e, es, or rather, ein solcher, such a one; and, so ein, so eine, so ein, may be added to the list of demonstrative pronouns. The first mentioned coincides, in its meaning, with derjenige, and der, but it is not so much in use: as, Selbiger Mensch, that man, or the said man, for der Mensch; zu selbiger Zeit, at that time, for zu der Zeit.

10. Instead of the demonstrative pronouns, with certain prepositions, the local adverbs hier, here, and da,

there, are often employed: hier, may then be changed into hie, before a consonant, and da, must be transformed into dar, before a vowel. For example: Hiermit, or hiemit, herewith, for, mit diesem, with this; hieraus, hereout; hence, for aus diesem, out of this; hieran, hereon, for an diesem, on this. Davon, thereof, for von dem, of or from, that; or for the plural, von denen, of, or from, those; daran, thereon, thereat, for an dem, on that; daraus, thereout, or aus dem, out of that; darin, therein; darein, thereinto; darauf, thereupon, darüber, for über das, upon that, thereupon; damit, therewith, for mit dem, with that, &c.

SECTION IV.

PRONOUNS RELATIVE, AND INTERROGATIVE.

These are, Welcher, welche, welches, who, and which, and Wer, neut. was, who, what. Der, die, das, is like the English *that*, used in a relative signification.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Welcher,	welche,	welches.	Welche.
Gen.	Welches,	welcher,	welches.	Welcher.
Dat.	Welchem,	welcher,	welchem.	Welchen.
Acc.	Welchen,	welche,	welches.	Welche.

	Singular.		*Plural none.*
	Masc. and Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Wer	Was.	
Gen.	Wessen (or weß).		
Dat.	Wem,		
Acc.	Wen,	Was.	

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Der,	die,	das.	Die.
Gen.	Dessen,	deren, (or) der* ?	dessen,	Derer, (or deren).
Dat.	Dem,	der,	dem.	Denen.
Acc.	Den,	die,	das.	Die.

Observations.

1. The English distinguish, in their relatives, the pronouns *who*, and *which*; applying the former to persons, and the latter to animals, and things. The German's admit no such difference. They use welcher, in relation to the one and the other. In English, *that*, frequently performs the function of *who*, or *which*, especially for the purpose of avoiding repetition. In a similar manner, the Germans employ der, die, das, instead of welcher, welche, welches. The former has the advantage of brevity: and is therefore often preferred: though in many places, welcher would be decidedly better. The latter ought to be considered as the proper, and genuine relative; and der, die, das, only as an occasional substitute. Welcher should have the preference: 1) After the first, and

* For ex: Eine Kriegeslist, der sich Cäsar bediente, a stratagem, which Cæsar employed. But I am of opinion that the genitive, der, is incorrect; it should always be deren.

second, personal pronouns.* Ich, welcher—I who: Du, welcher—thou who; Wir, welche—we who: Sie (being used as a pronoun of address, *They*, for *you*), welche—they who. 2) When the relative immediately precedes the verb, without another word intervening: as, Ein Mann, welcher schreibt, a man who is writing: ein Kind welches liest, a child which is reading. 3) When the definite article, or a demonstrative pronoun goes just before: as, der Mann, welcher—dieser Mann, welcher—jene Frau, welche—dasjenige Kind, welches. This third distinction is not sufficiently regarded, in practice; and those pronouns are promiscuously used. That this is wrong, cannot escape the observation of an accurate judge. By allowing der die, das, to follow closely after the definite article, or a demonstrative pronoun, an unpleasant uniformity of sound is, in the first place, created. Secondly, der, die, das, having itself the qualifications of the definite article, and of a pronoun demonstrative, a mutability of signification is exhibited: which is no virtue in any word, nor in any language, and is the more objectionable, when there is another term in existence, in every respect of the same power and aptness, which is exempt from those imperfections. In the two other situations, der would produce an abruptness of sound, from which the German language is averse. Therefore, Ich, der viele Bücher gelesen

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* After the first personal, of the plural, Wir, it would be objectionable to employ welche, on account of the alliteration. It is, in this instance, expedient to say Wir, die w[illegible]

† See p. 229.

habe, I who have read many books; must be changed into, Ich, welcher viele Bücher gelesen habe: and, instead of, Ein Knabe, der schreibt, a boy that writes; it will be proper to say, Ein Knabe, welcher schreibt. The defect of abruptness, in the relative der, is often remedied by the addition of certain words to that pronoun. Namely, when placed after the first, or second, personal, the antecedent pronoun is repeated after the relative. For example: Ich, der ich viele Bücher gelesen habe, I who have read many books; du, der du hier stehest, thou who standest here. Wir, die wir hier versammelt sind, we who are here assembled; Ihr, die ihr euer Vaterland liebt, you who love your country.* When alone with a verb, after the third personal, or a substantive, the adverb da is joined with it: as, Ein Knabe, der da schreibt, a boy that writes. Da, signifies *there*, but serves, in this juncture, as a mere expletive, to lengthen the short relative pronoun.—Der, as a relative, never stands united with a substantive; for instance, der Mann, cannot express, *which man*.

2. The genitive plural of the pronoun der, die, das, is properly derer; but when it is used in a relative signification, it is commonly changed into deren, though not always.†

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* In such a connection, the preceding personal is sometimes spared: as, Die ihr ein Lied der Liebe wagt, ye that venture on a song of love, for ihr, die ihr, &c.—Herder, Zerstreute Blätter, Vol. 3, p. 31.

† Dann seufze sie nach in jenen Blumen,
Derer Haupt am Hügel
Schwerer und gesenkter ist.

3. The adverb so, so, sometimes represents the relative. For example: die Wahrheit, welche von einem Werke, wie dasjenige ist, so wir den Liebhabern hiermit vorlegen, gefodert werden kann, bestehet darin, &c. "The veracity that can be required of a work, like the one *which* we now lay before the lovers of elegant literature, consists in this," &c. Wieland. It is a peculiarity of the ancient style, and at present only resorted to, for the purpose of preventing the repetition of other relatives. When the verb follows after it, without any other word between, da is added, as in the relative der, die, das. For example, in Bürger's Leonore:

> Doch keiner war, der Kundschaft gab,
> Von allen, so da kamen, (*i. e.* welche kamen).

"Of all that came."

4. Wer, who, as a relative, always begins a sentence: what otherwise would be the antecedent, follows. For example: Wer auf dem Wege der Tugend wandelt, ist glücklich, he who walks in the path of virtue, is happy. It is never put *after* an antecedent. It would, for instance, be a solecism to say, der Mann, wer die Gesetze ehrt, the man, who respects the laws. Here a different relative is required. Nor can wer be connected with a substantive,

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"Then repeat my sounds, sighing, among those flowers, whose heads, near the grave, are drooping and declining."—From Denis's Monody on the Death of Gellert. Here the genitive derer, is more emphatick and distinct, than deren would appear.

as, wer Mann, which man: for welcher Mann. When wer stands alone with the verb, da is frequently added to it, in the same manner, as it is to der (see the former page); as, Wer da glaubt, daß dieß so sey, irrt sich, he who thinks that this is so, is mistaken.——The neuter was, may either commence a sentence, or be placed after an antecedent. For example: Was gerecht ist, verdient Lob, what is just, deserves praise; das, was du mir gesagt hast, that which you have told me; alles, was ich gesehen habe, all I have seen. It stands here to signify *which;* and is very properly employed after an antecedent, denoting something general, and undetermined. When an individual, or particular subject precedes, it is necessary to express the neuter, *which*, by welches: as, das Buch, welches Sie mir geliehen haben, the book which you have lent me. This rule is sometimes neglected, and was put, where welches ought to be the relative; but such deviations are not to be approved. Wer, occasionally, signifies *somebody*: as, es ist wer da, there is somebody; and was, *something*: as, Ich habe was, I have got something. But these expressions are not classical.

5. The relative pronoun is often omitted in English, and to be understood, in a sentence. For example: "The man I love," *i. e. whom* I love.

> The pensive muse shall own thee for her mate,
> And still protect the song she loves so well.
>
> CHARLOTTE SMITH.

i. e. which she loves,

> Simply the thing I am shall make me live.—SHAKSPEARE.

i. e. which I am.—In German, the relative must always be expressed.

6. The pronouns Wer, neuter, was: and welcher, welche, welches, also serve to questions, or in other words, have the signification of interrogatives.—Wer is applied to persons, either male or female, and was to things. They ask the questions, in a general way, as the English *who*, and *what*: and are never joined with a substantive. Welcher, welche, welches, refers to particular objects, and may be united with substantives. It answers to the English interrogative, *which*: as, Welcher Mann, which man?

7. Was is combined with the indefinite article, to express the French interrogative, or exclamatory, pronoun, *quel*, Lat *qualis*, and the English *what*, with or without the indefinite article, as, *what man?* or *what a man!* But in German, the preposition für is inserted, between was, and the article: as, Was für ein Mann, what man, or what a man; was für eine Frau, what woman, or, what a woman; was für ein Kind, what child, or, what a child. It is literally, *what for a man*, *what for a woman*. This preposition had probably a meaning, when it was first introduced; which, by time, has been obliterated.* The indefinite article is omitted,

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* The Swedes, Danes, and Dutch, have the same manner of expression; and in Shakespeare, (Much Ado about nothing, Act. 1. last scene) the following passage is found: "*What* is he *for a* fool that betrothes himself to unquietness." *What for a fool*, seems to be said instead of, *What a fool*, and to correspond with the German mode of speaking.

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8. The local adverb Wo, where, with a preposition, frequently fills the place of a relative pronoun. For example: Womit, wherewith, instead of mit welchem, fem. welcher, or plur. mit welchen, with which: wovon, whereof, instead of von welchem, welcher, welchen, of which: wodurch, wherethrough, for durch welchen, welche, welches, through which; wozu, whereto, for zu welchem, welcher, welchen, to which; worin, wherein; woran, whereon, whereat. When the preposition begins with a vowel, r is inserted after wo: as, Woraus, whereout, for out of which; worüber, whereupon, whereover, for upon which, or over which.*

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* *Wolf*, in the preface, or introduction to *Literarische Analekten*, Vol. 1. p. 15, below, has the relative adverb, worohne, without which. I have not met with this compound any where else.

SECTION V.

MISCELLANEOUS PRONOUNS.

UNDER this denomination are to be comprehended several words, which could not conveniently be classed with the former divisions. They are: Jeder, jeweder, mancher, man, jemand, niemand, and selbst, or selber.

1. Jeder, jede, jedes, each, every (one); jedweder, jedwede, jedwedes, each, every (one); mancher, manche, manches, many a (one). They are either put before substantives, or may stand by themselves; and are all declined.

2. Man, is not declined. It implies a general, or indefinite, personality, answering to the French *On*; and takes the verb in the singular number. For example: Man sagt, French, *on dit*, people say, they say; man spricht, Fr. *on parle*, people talk, they talk. The English make use of different expressions, such as, *we, you, they, a person, one*; where the Germans employ man, and the French *on*. For instance: Man muß sich hüten, Fr. on doit prendre garde, *a person*, or *one*, must take care; man irrt sich, wenn man glaubt,—on se trompe, si l'on pense, *a person*, or *one*, mistakes, if he thinks. —The oblique cases of the indefinite article are placed in a corresponding relation with man. For example: Man ärgert sich immer, wenn einem gewisse Erwartungen fehlschlagen, a person is always vexed, when he is disappointed in certain expectations. Man irrt sich, wenn man glaubt, der große Haufe schätze einen wahrer Verdienste

the man; das ist die Frau, that is the woman; das sind die Leute, those are the people.

6. Derselbe, is frequently employed with the signification of the third personal, or that of a simple demonstrative, in a similar manner as, in English, *the same*, is sometimes, though not often, used. For example: *I have received the book, and read the same*, for *and read it*. Ich habe das Buch erhalten und dasselbe gelesen. Thus *it*, would be expressed by dasselben. But its peculiar and original power is the Latin *idem*. In that sense, it sometimes has the adverb eben, before it, which gives it additional force, eben derselbe, the very same; and occasionally also the first numeral, which still increases the meaning: as, Ein und eben derselbe, one and the same.

7. Derselbige, dieselbige, dasselbige, *the same*, is synonymous with derselbe, dieselbe, dasselbe. Sometimes it has a strong demonstrative power, signifying *that*; but altogether it is a word, not of the most classical stamp.

8. Der nämliche, and der gleiche, occur as substitutes for derselbe; but the latter not so frequently.

9. Selbiger, e, es, Lat. *is, ea, id*; solcher, e, es, or rather, ein solcher, such a one; and, so ein, so eine, so ein, may be added to the list of demonstrative pronouns. The first mentioned coincides, in its meaning, with derjenige, and der, but it is not so much in use: as, Selbiger Mensch, that man, or the said man, for der Mensch; zu selbiger Zeit, at that time, for zu der Zeit.

10. Instead of the demonstrative pronouns, with certain prepositions, the local adverbs hier, here, and da,

there, are often employed: hier, may then be changed into hie, before a consonant, and da, must be transformed into dar, before a vowel. For example: Hiermit, or hiemit, herewith, for, mit diesem, with this; hieraus, hereout; hence, for aus diesem, out of this; hieran, hereon, for an diesem, on this. Davon, thereof, for von dem, of or from, that; or for the plural, von denen, of, or from, those; daran, thereon, thereat, for an dem, on that; daraus, thereout, or aus dem, out of that; darin, therein; darein, thereinto; darauf, thereupon, darüber, for über das, upon that, thereupon; damit, therewith, for mit dem, with that, &c.

SECTION IV.

PRONOUNS RELATIVE, AND INTERROGATIVE.

THESE are, Welcher, welche, welches, who, and which, and Wer, neut. was, who, what. Der, die, das, is like the English *that*, used in a relative signification.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Welcher,	welche,	welches.	Welche.
Gen.	Welches,	welcher,	welches.	Welcher.
Dat.	Welchem,	welcher,	welchem.	Welchen.
Acc.	Welchen,	welche,	welches.	Welche.

	Singular.		*Plural none.*
	Masc. and Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Wer	Was.	
Gen.	Wessen (or weß).		
Dat.	Wem,		
Acc.	Wen,	Was.	

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Der,	die,	das.	Die.
Gen.	Dessen,	deren, (or) der* ?	dessen,	Derer, (or deren).
Dat.	Dem,	der,	dem.	Denen.
Acc.	Den,	die,	das.	Die.

Observations.

1. The English distinguish, in their relatives, the pronouns *who*, and *which*; applying the former to persons, and the latter to animals, and things. The German's admit no such difference. They use welcher, in relation to the one and the other. In English, *that*, frequently performs the function of *who*, or *which*, especially for the purpose of avoiding repetition. In a similar manner, the Germans employ der, die, das, instead of welcher, welche, welches. The former has the advantage of brevity: and is therefore often preferred: though in many places, welcher would be decidedly better. The latter ought to be considered as the proper, and genuine relative; and der, die, das, only as an occasional substitute. Welcher should have the preference: 1) After the first, and

* For ex: Eine Kriegesliſt, der ſich Cäſar bediente, a stratagem, which Cæsar employed. But I am of opinion that the genitive, der, is incorrect: it should always be deren.

second, personal pronouns.* Ich, welcher—I who: Du, welcher—thou who; Ihr, welche—you who; Sie (being used as a pronoun of address, *They*, for *you*†), welche—they who. 2) When the relative immediately precedes the verb, without another word intervening: as, Ein Mann, welcher schreibt, a man who is writing; ein Kind, welches liest, a child which is reading. 3) When the definite article, or a demonstrative pronoun goes just before: as, der Mann, welcher—dieser Mensch, welcher—jene Frau, welche—dasjenige Kind, welches. This third distinction is not sufficiently regarded, in practice; and those pronouns are promiscuously used. That this is wrong, cannot escape the observation of an accurate judge. By allowing der die, das, to follow closely after the definite article, or a demonstrative pronoun, an unpleasant uniformity of sound is, in the first place, created. Secondly, der, die, das, having itself the qualifications of the definite article, and of a pronoun demonstrative, a mutability of signification is exhibited: which is no virtue in any word, nor in any language, and is the more objectionable, when there is another term in existence, in every respect of the same power and aptness, which is exempt from those imperfections. In the two other situations, der would produce an abruptness of sound, from which the German language is averse. Therefore, Ich, der viele Bücher gelesen

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* After the first personal, of the plural, Wir, it would be objectionable to employ welche, on account of the alliteration. It is, in this instance, expedient to say Wir, die wir.

† See p. 229.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Der,	die,	das.	Die.
Gen.	Dessen,	deren, (or) der* ?	dessen,	Derer, (or deren).
Dat.	Dem,	der,	dem.	Denen.
Acc.	Den,	die,	das.	Die.

Observations.

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habe, I who have read many books; must be changed into, Ich, welcher viele Bücher gelesen habe: and, instead of, Ein Knabe, der schreibt, a boy that writes; it will be proper to say, Ein Knabe, welcher schreibt. The defect of abruptness, in the relative der, is often remedied by the addition of certain words to that pronoun. Namely, when placed after the first, or second, personal, the antecedent pronoun is repeated after the relative. For example: Ich, der ich viele Bücher gelesen habe, I who have read many books; du, der du hier stehest, thou who standest here. Wir, die wir hier versammelt sind, we who are here assembled; Ihr, die ihr euer Vaterland liebt, you who love your country.* When alone with a verb, after the third personal, or a substantive, the adverb da is joined with it: as, Ein Knabe, der da schreibt, a boy that writes. Da, signifies *there*, but serves, in this juncture, as a mere expletive, to lengthen the short relative pronoun.—Der, as a relative, never stands united with a substantive; for instance, der Mann, cannot express, *which man*.

2. The genitive plural of the pronoun der, die, das, is properly derer; but when it is used in a relative signification, it is commonly changed into deren, though not always.†

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* In such a connection, the preceding personal is sometimes spared: as, Die ihr ein Lied der Liebe wagt, ye that venture on a song of love, for ihr, die ihr, &c.—Herder, Zerstreute Blätter, Vol. 3, p. 31.

† Dann seufze sie nach in jenen Blumen,
Derer Haupt am Hügel
Schwerer und gesenkter ist.

3. The adverb so, so, sometimes represents the relative. For example: die Wahrheit, welche von einem Werke, wie dasjenige ist, so wir den Liebhabern hiermit vorlegen, gefodert werden kann, bestehet darin, &c. "The veracity that can be required of a work, like the one *which* we now lay before the lovers of elegant literature, consists in this," &c. Wieland. It is a peculiarity of the ancient style, and at present only resorted to, for the purpose of preventing the repetition of other relatives. When the verb follows after it, without any other word between, da is added, as in the relative der, die, das. For example, in Bürger's Leonore:

> Doch keiner war, der Kundschaft gab,
> Von allen, so da kamen, (*i. e.* welche kamen).

"Of all that came."

4. Wer, who, as a relative, always begins a sentence: what otherwise would be the antecedent, follows. For example: Wer auf dem Wege der Tugend wandelt, ist glücklich, he who walks in the path of virtue, is happy. It is never put *after* an antecedent. It would, for instance, be a solecism to say, der Mann, wer die Gesetze ehrt, the man, who respects the laws. Here a different relative is required. Nor can wer be connected with a substantive,

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8. The local adverb Wo, where, with a preposition, frequently fills the place of a relative pronoun. For example: Womit, wherewith, instead of mit welchem, fem. welcher, or plur. mit welchen, with which: wovon, whereof, instead of von welchem, welcher, welchen, of which: wodurch, wherethrough, for durch welchen, welche, welches, through which; wozu, whereto, for zu welchem, welcher, welchen, to which; worin, wherein; woran, whereon, whereat. When the preposition begins with a vowel, r is inserted after wo: as, Woraus, whereout, for out of which; worüber, whereupon, whereover, for upon which, or over which.*

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SECTION V.

MISCELLANEOUS PRONOUNS.

UNDER this denomination are to be comprehended several words, which could not conveniently be classed with the former divisions. They are: Jeder, jeweder, mancher, man, jemand, niemand, and selbst, or selber.

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2. Man, is not declined. It implies a general, or indefinite, personality, answering to the French *On*; and takes the verb in the singular number. For example: Man sagt, French, *on dit*, people say, they say; man spricht, Fr. *on parle*, people talk, they talk. The English make use of different expressions, such as, *we, you, they, a person, one*; where the Germans employ man, and the French *on*. For instance: Man muß sich hüten, Fr. on doit prendre garde, *a person*, or *one*, must take care; man irrt sich, wenn man glaubt,—on se trompe, si l'on pense, *a person*, or *one*, mistakes, if he thinks. —The oblique cases of the indefinite article are placed in a corresponding relation with man. For example: Man ärgert sich immer, wenn einem gewisse Erwartungen fehlschlagen, a person is always vexed, when he is disappointed in certain expectations. Man irrt sich, wenn man glaubt, der große Haufe schätze einen wahrer Verdienste

wegen, one is mistaken, if he thinks, that the multitude esteems him for true merit.—In these examples, einem and einen, dative and accusative cases of the indefinite article, answer to man.

3. Jemand, some one, some body, any one, any body; jederman, every one; niemand, no one. These words seem to be composed of the foregoing man, and of je, ever; jeder, each; nie, never. In the genitive case, they have *s* added: as, jemands, jedermans, niemands. The dative and accusative are like the nominative, or sometimes, but not usually, marked by the termination *en*: as jemanden, niemanden; never in jederman. Now and then, an adjective is put after jemand, and niemand, in the neuter gender, second form: as, jemand Vornehmes, some great, or genteel, person; jemand Fremdes, some stranger; from vornehm, and fremd. Thus niemand Vornehmes, no great, or genteel, person; niemand Fremdes, no stranger. But there is something ungrammatical in those modes of expression, at least something, which cannot be accounted for, from grammar; and thence they are not to be recommended for imitation. Instead of jemand Vornehmes, you may say, ein vornehmer Mann, a great man, or ein vornehmer Herr, a great gentleman; or if it be a lady, ein vornehmes Frauenzimmer: or if more than one person, vornehme Leute, great people; and for niemand Fremdes, kein Fremder, no stranger: by which means those phrases may be avoided.—The first numeral Einer, occasionally stands for jemand, some one: but this is, perhaps, to be considered as an abuse of that word.

4. The invariable pronoun selbst, or selber, resembling the English *self*, may be added to any pronoun, or to any substantive. For example: Ich selbst, I myself; du selbst, thou thyself; er selbst, he himself; der Mann, selbst, the man himself; die Frau selbst, the woman herself; wir selbst, we ourselves; ihr selbst, you yourselves; sie selbst, they themselves; die Leute selbst, the people themselves. The English *self*, must previously be compounded with a pronoun, such as, *him*, *her*, *my*, *thy*, *our*, *&c.* to qualify it for an adjunct to a substantive, or personal pronoun, as, the man *him*self, the woman *her*self, I *my*self, thou *thy*self; it is likewise varied in the plural, as, we *our*selves; but the German word is neither compounded, nor declined. It may be placed, as an adverb, before a substantive, or pronoun, in which situation it signifies *even*: as, selbst ich, even I; selbst du, even thou; selbst sie, even they; selbst der Mann, even the man; selbst die Leute, even the people. Selbst, is preferable to selber.—Selbst, or abridged selb, is sometimes connected with ordinal numbers: as, Selbstdritter, or selbdritter, selbvierter; selbzehnter; selbzwanzigster. It then implies that the person, to whom the number refers, is accompanied by so many others. For example: Ich selbvierter, I myself the fourth, that means, three besides me; der König selbstzwanzigster, the king the twentieth, that is the king, and nineteen persons besides.*

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* Selbzwanzigster gefangen, und allein vom Saladin begnadigt;—I was taken with nineteen others, but alone spared by Saladin.—Lessing's Nathan der Weise, Act. 1 Sc. 5.

CHAPTER IV.

ON THE VERB.

Containing.

1. *The Auxiliary Verbs,*
2. *The Conjugation of Regular Verbs,*
3. *The Irregular Verbs,*
4. *Verbs Neuter,*
5. *Reflective Verbs,*
6. *Impersonal Verbs,*
7. *Compound Verbs.*

SECTION I.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

If verbs auxiliary be those, which are indispensably required to complete a conjugation, we must recognise three such verbs, in the German language.

The first is Haben, to have. This serves for the formation of the preterperfect, preterpluperfect, and second future tenses, in the active voice.

The second Seyn, to be. It forms the preterperfect, preterpluperfect, and second future, of some neuter verbs; and likewise helps to compose those tenses, in the passive voice.

The third is Werden. This verb signifies, 1. a future

event, which may consist in acting, being, or suffering. Thus it expresses the English auxiliaries of the future tense, *shall* and *will;* and seems to resemble the Greek verb μέλλω. With this qualification, it produces all the future tenses. 2. It denotes the coming into a certain state, or condition. Therefore, when joined with a noun, it answers to the Latin *fio,* and the English *to become.* But with this power, it is likewise employed to form the passive voice.

Note.—It will be seen, from the examples of the German conjugation, in the following pages, that the principal parts of the verb are: the present, and preterimperfect tenses of the indicative mood, the infinitive, and the preterite participle. These may be considered as the roots from which all, or most, tenses are derived. For which reason, they will be placed at the head of every verb that is exhibited for the purpose of conjugation.

First Auxiliary. Haben, to have.

Habe, present tense;—Hatte, preterimperfect;—Gehabt, preterite participle.

INDICATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
Present Tense.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich habe, I have.	1. Ich habe, (if) I have.
2. Du hast, thou hast.	2. Du habest, (if) thou have
3. Er, (sie, es) hat, he, (she, it) has.	3. Er, (sie, es,), habe, (if he, (she, it) have.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir haben, we have.	1. Wir haben, (if) we have.
2. Ihr habet, or habt, you have.	2. Ihr habet, (if) you have.
3. Sie haben, they have.	3. Sie haben, (if) they have.

Preterimperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich hatte, I had.	1. Ich hätte, (if) I had.
2. Du hattest, thou hadst.	2. Du hättest, (if) thou had.
3. Er hatte, he had.	3. Er hätte, (if) he had.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir hatten, we had.	1. Wir hätten, (if) we had.
2. Ihr hattet, you had.	2. Ihr hättet, you had.
3. Sie hatten, they had.	3. Sie hätten, they had.

Preterperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich habe gehabt, I have had	1. Ich habe gehabt, (if) I have had.
2. Du hast gehabt, thou hast had.	2. Du habest gehabt, (if) thou have had.
3. Er hat gehabt, he has had.	3. Er habe gehabt, he have had.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir haben gehabt, we have had.	1. Wir haben gehabt, we have had.
2. Ihr habet, or habt, gehabt, you have had.	2. Ihr habet gehabt, you have had.
3. Sie haben gehabt, they have had.	3. Sie haben gehabt, they have had.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich hatte gehabt, I had had.	1. Ich hätte gehabt, (if) I had had.
2. Du hattest gehabt, thou hadst had.	2. Du hättest gehabt, (if) thou had had.
3. Er hatte gehabt, he had had.	3. Er hätte gehabt, (if) he had had.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir hatten gehabt, we had had.	1. Wir hätten gehabt, (if) we had had.
2. Ihr hattet gehabt, you had had	2. Ihr hättet gehabt, you had had.
3. Sie hatten gehabt, they had had.	3. Sie hätten gehabt, they had had.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde haben, I shall have.	1. Ich werde haben, (if) I shall have.
2. Du wirst haben, thou shalt or wilt, have.	2. Du werdest haben, (if) thou shalt have.
3. Er wird haben, he shall or will, have.	3. Er werde haben, (if) he shall have.

Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden haben, we shall have.	1. Wir werden haben, (if) we shall have.
2. Ihr werdet haben, you shall, or will, have.	2. Ihr werdet haben, (if) you shall have.
3. Sie werden haben, they shall, or will, have.	3. Sie werden haben, (if) they shall have.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gehabt haben, I shall have had.	1. Ich werde gehabt haben, (if) I shall have had.
2. Du wirst gehabt haben, thou shalt, or wilt, have had.	2. Du werdest gehabt haben, (if) thou shalt have had.
3. Er wird gehabt haben, he shall, or will, have had.	3. Er werde gehabt haben, (if) he shall have had.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden gehabt haben, we shall have had.	1. Wir werden gehabt haben, (if) we shall have had.
2. Ihr werdet gehabt haben, you shall, or will, have had.	2. Ihr werdet gehabt haben, (if) you shall have had.
3. Sie werden gehabt haben, they shall, or will, have had.	3. Sie werden gehabt haben, (if) they shall have had.

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde haben, I should, or would, have.
2. Du würdest haben, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have.
3. Er würde haben, he should, or would, have.

Plural.

1. Wir würden haben, we should, or would, have.
2. Ihr würdet haben, you should, or would, have.
3. Sie würden haben, they should, or would, have.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gehabt haben, I should, or would, have had.
2. Du würdest gehabt haben, thou shouldst, or wouldst have had.
3. Er würde gehabt haben, he should, or would have had.

Plural.

1. Wir würden gehabt haben, we should, or would, have had.
2. Ihr würdet gehabt haben, you should, or would, have had.
3. Sie würden gehabt haben, they should, or would, have had

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Haben wir, let us have.*)
2. Habe (du), have (thou).	2. Habet, or habt (ihr), have (you.)
3. Habe er, (sie, es,) let, him, (her, it,) have.	3. Haben sie, let them have.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present,	Haben, to have.
Pret. perf.	Gehabt haben, to have had.
Future,	Haben werden, to be about to have.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Habend, having.
Preterite, Gehabt, had.

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* The first person plural, of the imperative, is not commonly met with. The verb lassen, to let, is usually employed, as it is in English, to express that idea. Now and then, you see the bare imperative thus used, as, gehen wir, let us go; haben wir Geduld, let us have patience: but this is a deviation from the general practice, and to be considered as an innovation, or a peculiarity.

Second Auxiliary. Seyn, to be.

Bin, pres.;—War, pret. imperf.;—Gewesen, pret. part.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich bin, I am.	1. Ich sey, (if) I be.
2 Du bist, thou art.	2. Du seyest, or seyst, thou be.
3. Er ist, he is.	3. Er sey, he be.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir sind, we are.	1. Wir seyen, or seyn, we be.
2. Ihr seyd, you are.	2. Ihr seyed, or seyd, you be.
3. Sie sind, they are.	3. Sie seyen, or seyn, they be.
Preterimperfect.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich war, I was.	1. Ich wäre, (if) I were.
2. Du warest, or warst, thou wast.	2. Du wärest, thou wert.
3. Er war, he was.	3. Er wäre, he were.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir waren, we were.	1. Wir wären, we were.
2. Ihr waret, or wart, you were.	2. Ihr wäret, you were.
3. Sie waren, they were.	3. Sie wären, they were.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich bin gewesen, I have been.	1. Ich sey gewesen, (if) I have been.
2. Du bist gewesen, thou hast been.	2. Du seyest, or seyst, gewesen, (if) thou have been.
3. Er ist gewesen, he has been.	3. Er sey gewesen, (if) he have been.

Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir sind gewesen, we have been.	1. Wir seyen, or seyn, gewesen, we have been.
2. Ihr seyd gewesen, you have been.	2. Ihr seyet, or seyd, gewesen, you have been.
3. Sie sind gewesen, they have been.	3. Sie seyen, or seyn, gewesen, they have been.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich war gewesen, I had been.	1. Ich wäre gewesen, (if) I had been.
2. Du warest gewesen, thou hadst been.	2. Du wärest gewesen, (if) thou had been.
3. Er war gewesen, he had been.	3. Er wäre gewesen, (if) he had been.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir waren gewesen, we had been.	1. Wir wären gewesen, (if) we had been.
2. Ihr waret gewesen, you had been.	2. Ihr wäret gewesen, you had been.
3. Sie waren gewesen, they had been.	3. Sie wären gewesen, they had been.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde seyn, I shall be.	1. Ich werde seyn, (if) I shall be.
2. Du wirst seyn, thou shalt, or wilt, be.	2. Du werdest seyn, thou shalt be.
3. Er wird seyn, he shall, or will, be.	3. Er werde seyn, he shall be.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden seyn, we shall be.	1. Wir werden seyn, we shall be.
2. Ihr werdet seyn, you shall, or will, be.	2. Ihr werdet seyn, you shall be.
3. Sie werden seyn, they shall, or will, be.	3. Sie werden seyn, they shall be.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gewesen seyn, I shall have been.	1. Ich werde gewesen seyn, (if) I shall have been.
2. Du wirst gewesen seyn, thou shalt, or wilt, have been.	2. Du werdest gewesen seyn, thou shalt have been.
3. Er wird gewesen seyn, he shall or will have been.	3. Er werde gewesen seyn, he shall have been.

Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden gewesen seyn, we shall have been	1. Wir werden gewesen seyn, we shall have been.
2. Ihr werdet gewesen seyn, you shall, or will, have been.	2. Ihr werdet gewesen seyn, you shall have been.
3. Sie werden gewesen seyn, they shall, or will, have been.	3. Sie werden gewesen seyn, they shall have been.

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde seyn, I should or would, be.
2. Du würdest seyn, thou shouldst, or wouldst, be.
3. Er würde seyn, he should, or would, be.

Plural.

1. Wir würden seyn, we should, or would, be.
2. Ihr würdet seyn, you should, or would, be.
3. Sie würden seyn, they should, or would, be.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gewesen seyn, I should, or would, have been.
2. Du würdest gewesen seyn, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have been.
3. Er würde gewesen seyn, he should, or would have been.

Plural.

1. Wir würden gewesen seyn, we should, or would have been.
2. Ihr würdet gewesen seyn, you should, or would, have been.
3. Sie würden gewesen seyn, they should, or would, have been.

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.

2. Sey (du) be (thou).
3. Sey er, let him be.

Plural.

(1. Seyen, or seyn, wir, let us be).
2. Seyd (ihr), be (you.
3. Seyen, or seyn sie, let them be.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Seyn, to be.

Preterperf. Gewesen seyn to have been.

Fut. Seyn werden, to be about to be.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Seyend, being,

Preterite, Gewesen, been.

Third Auxiliary. Werden, to become.

Werde, pres.;—Wurde (or ward*), imperf.;—Geworden, or worden), pret. part.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde, I become.	1. Ich werde, (if) I become.
2. Du wirst, thou becomest.	2. Du werdest, (if) thou become.
3. Er wird, he becomes.	3. Er werde, (if) he become

* I am of opinion that the form Wurde, throughout the imperfect, is preferable to the adoption of Ward, in some of the persons. By the mixture of the two forms, the inflection becomes irregular, for which there is no necessity: and when an anomaly can be avoided, it should, on general principle, be done. The preterimperfect of Werden, therefore, appears somewhat different, in the present and fourth editions, from what it did in the former ones. See the Excercises, p. 53. note 1.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden, we become.	1. Wir werden, we become
2. Ihr werdet, you become.	2. Ihr werdet, you become.
3. Sie werden, theybecome.	3. Sie werden, theybecome.

Preterimperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich wurde, (or ward), I became.	1. Ich würde, (if) I became.
2. Du wurdest, (or wardst), thou becamest.	2. Du würdest, (if) thou became.
3. Er wurde, (or ward), he became.	3. Er würde, he became.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir wurden, we became.	1. Wir würden, we became
2. Ihr wurdet, you became.	2. Ihr würdet, you became.
3. Sie wurden, they became.	3. Sie würden, they became

Preterperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich bin geworden, or worden, I have become.	1. Ich sey geworden, or worden, (if) I have become.
2. Du bist geworden, or worden, thou hast become.	2. Du seyest or seyst, geworden, or worden, (if) thou have become.
3. Er ist geworden, or worden, he has become.	3. Er sey geworden, or worden, (if) he have become.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir sind, geworden, or worden, we have become.	1. Wir seyen, or seyn, geworden, or worden, we have become.
2. Ihr seyd geworden, or worden, you have become.	2. Ihr seyed, or seyd, geworden, or worden, you have become.
3. Sie sind geworden, or worden, they have become.	3. Sie seyen, or seyn, geworden, or worden, they have become.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich war geworden, or worden, I had become.	1. Ich wäre geworden, or worden, (if) I had become.
2. Du warest, (warst) geworden, or worden, thou hadst become.	2. Du wärest geworden, or worden, (if) thou had become.
3. Er war geworden, or worden, he had become.	3. Er wäre geworden, or worden, (if) he had become.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir waren geworden, or worden, we had become.	1. Wir wären geworden, or worden, we had become.
2. Ihr waret (wart) geworden, or worden, you had become.	2. Ihr wäret geworden, or worden, you had become.
3. Sie waren geworden, or worden, they had become	3. Sie wären geworden, or worden, they had become.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde werden, I shall become.	1. Ich werde werden, (if) I shall become.
2. Du wirst werden, thou shalt, or wilt, become.	2. Du werdest werden, thou shalt become.
3. Er wird werden, he shall, or will, become.	3. Er werde werden, he shall become.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden werden, we shall become.	1. Wir werden werden, we shall become.
2. Ihr werdet werden, you shall, or will, become.	2. Ihr werdet werden, you shall become.
3. Sie werden werden, they shall, or will, become	3. Sie werden werden, they shall become.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde geworden, or worden, seyn, I shall have become.	1. Ich werde geworden, or worden, seyn, (if) I shall have become.
2. Du wirst geworden, or worden, seyn, thou shalt, or wilt, have become.	2. Du werdest geworden, or worden, seyn, thou shalt have become.
3. Er wird geworden, or worden, seyn, he shall, or will, have become.	3. Er werde geworden, or worden, seyn, he shall have become.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden geworden, or worden, seyn, we shall have become.	1. Wir werden geworden, or worden, seyn, we shall have become.
2. Ihr werdet geworden, or worden, seyn, you shall, or will, have become.	2. Ihr werdet geworden, or worden, seyn, you shall have become.
3. Sie werden geworden, or worden, seyn, they shall, or will, have become.	3. Sie werden geworden, or worden, seyn, they shall have become.

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde werden, I should, or would, become.
2. Du würdest werden, thou shouldst, or wouldst, become.
3. Er würde werden, he should, or would, become.

Plural.

1. Wir würden werden, we should, or would, become.
2. Ihr würdet werden, you should, or would, become.
3. Sie würden werden, they should, or would, become.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde geworden, or worden, seyn, I should, or would, have become
2. Du würdest geworden, or worden, seyn, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have become.
3. Er würde geworden, or worden, seyn, he should, or would have become.

Plural.

1. Wir würden geworden, or worden, seyn, we should, or would, have become.
2. Ihr würdet geworden, or worden, seyn, you should, or would, have become.
3. Sie würden geworden, or worden, seyn, they should, or would, have become.

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Werden wir, let us become).
2. Werde (du) become (thou)	2. Werdet (ihr) become (you).
3. Werde er, let him become.	3. Werden sie, let them become.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Werden, to become.
Pret. perfect. Geworden, or worden, seyn, to have become.
Fut. Werden werden, to be about to become.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Werdend, becoming.
Preterite, Geworden, or worden, become.

Observations.

1. According to the English grammar, the verbs *may*, *will*, *shall*, *let*, are, in conjugation, employed as auxiliaries. They are not necessarily required for the German conjugation. The ideas which they convey, are, indeed, expressed by similar verbs, in German, but these cannot be considered in the character of auxiliaries. They have, however, by some grammarians been introduced under that denomination. For this no ground can be assigned, except that they are combined with other verbs, which they govern in the infinitive mood. But if that be admitted as a criterion of helping verbs, their number may be still farther increased. True auxiliaries are only those, without which no complete conjugation can be formed: and under this description come the three verbs, that have been exhibited.—It may not be improper to say a few words of the other supposed auxiliaries, in order to make their nature more perfectly understood. They are: Ich mag, similar to the English, I may; ich will, answering to, I will; ich soll, I shall. To these may be added: Ich kann, I can; ich darf, I dare; ich muß, I must; ich lasse, I let. Those verbs are defective in English, all but two, *to let*, and *to dare;* in German, they are conjugated through all persons, tenses, and moods, excepting perhaps the imperative. They are all irregular, and will be seen in the list of the irregular verbs. In this place, their signification is to be briefly explained.

Ich mag, I may. Infinitive, mögen. The English verb, *May*, denotes the potential mood. The German signi-

fies, 1) being permitted, being at liberty to do a thing: as, er mag lachen, er mag weinen, ich verbiete es ihm nicht, he may laugh, he may cry, I do not forbid it him. 2) Chance or possibility, especially in the preterimperfect of the subjunctive mood: as, es möchte sich ereignen, it might happen; es möchte regnen, it might rain. 3) A wish, or desire, particularly in the present, and preterimperfect, of the subjunctive: as, möge er lange leben, may he live long! möge es der Himmel geben, may heaven grant it! Ich möchte wohl etwas davon haben, I should like to have some part of it. 4) To be able; Latin, *valere:* as, Wer mag deine Wunder erzählen! who can recount thy wonders! In this sense, the compound, Vermögen, is chiefly used. And lastly, 5) to like. Here it is connected with the infinitive: as, ich mag es nicht thun, I do not like to do it; and also with an accusative case, like a transitive verb: as, ich mag das nicht, I do not like that. In this signification, it is frequently applied to what is eaten, or drunk. For example: mögen Sie Sauerkraut? do you like sour-krout? nein, ich mag es nicht, no, I do not like it. Ich mag diesen Wein nicht, I do not like this wine. Ich mag nichts mehr, I do not like any more. In such phrases, an infinitive may be supplied, viz. essen, to eat, or trinken, to drink; and the construction, with the accusative, considered as elliptical.

Ich will, I will. Infinitive wollen. This answers to the Latin *velle*, and the French *vouloir;* and implies a future event, so far as it proceeds from will, and inclination. For example: wollen Sie spatzieren gehen? will you take a walk? that means, is it your will, or inclination, to take a walk? Ich will lesen, I will read; the same as;

It is my will, or my inclinations to read. Er will fliegen, und hat keine Flügel, he wishes to fly, and has no wings. The idea of purpose, and inclination always accompanies this verb: it is not employed, as in English, to denote mere futurity, for which werden is exclusively appropriated.

Ich soll, I shall. Infinitive, sollen. The English *Shall* may be regarded as the literal translation of the German word, but it does not comprehend all its meanings. The verb *to be*, with the preposition *to* and the infinitive of another verb following, (as, *I am to see, we are to go*), answers to its significations more often than *shall*. The German verb denotes: 1) To be obliged, by necessity, or duty. It may then, as occasion requires, be rendered by *shall, must, ought, am to;* in French, by *falloir, devoir*. For example: Du sollst das thun, thou shalt do that, thou art to do that, thou must do that; *il faut*. Sie sollen schreiben, you are to write: *il faut écrire* 2) To be bid, to be commissioned. Ich soll dahin gehen, I am to go there. 3) To be authorized, to be suffered, to be permitted. Soll ich es haben? am I to have it, may I have it? Soll ich es thun, oder nicht? am I to do it, or not? may I do it, or not? 4) To be admitted, to be supposed. Sie sollen mich nicht beleidigt haben, you are supposed not to have offended me; er soll seinen Satz erwiesen haben, he is admitted to have proved his position. These subsequent significations have all a connexion with the first, and original one, which implies an obligation. That obligation is sometimes so involved, that it is difficult to recognise it: for example, in the two last significations mentioned, where we must imagine an obligation,

springing from the will of another, to which we submit. It is still more so, when the verb means 5) To be said, to be reported: as, der König soll angekommen seyn, the king is said to be arrived. Die französische Flotte soll geschlagen worden seyn, the French fleet is said to have been beaten. Es soll sich zugetragen haben, it is said to have happened. If compulsion, or obligation, be the primary notion, to be combined with sollen, it may perhaps be represented as a kind of necessity, that a thing has happened in such a manner, and not otherwise: we may conceive a sort of limitation, or restriction, with regard to the fact, that has happened; as if we were to say, people *will have it*, that this has happened. In the expression *will have it*, something of constraint may be perceived: for where *the will* of any person is in operation, it produces a compulsion, or obligation, in reference to others. These primary notions, however, are obliterated: and we now content ourselves with the significations, as they are in use.* The formation of the future tense, by the verb *Shall*, in English, and by similar verbs in other languages, such as the Swedish, Danish, and Dutch, may be analysed, and traced, in a similar manner. Thus soll occurs in old German; and even in the modern language, that is, in High German, vestiges

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* The signification, just mentioned, *to be said, to be reported*, is found in the Swedish verb *skola*, the Danish *skulle*, and the Dutch *zullen*, all of which answer to the German sollen. See the Grammars, and Dictionaries of those languages.

of it remain in some phrases, and expressions. It is common in a conditional future, which is very frequently employed. For example: Wenn er kommen sollte, if he should come; wenn das so seyn sollte, if that should be so Sollte sich das Wetter ändern, so wollen wir ausgehen, should the weather change, we will go out.—Sollen is often used with an ellipsis, when the infinitive of some other verb is to be supplied. In this way several phrases are to be explained. For example: Was soll ich, what shall I?—supply thun, do, what shall I do, what am I to do, what would you with me, what do you want of me? Thus, Was sollst du? was soll er? was soll sie? was sollen wir, was sollt ihr, was sollen sie? what art thou to do, what art thou wanted for, what is he to do, or what is he wanted for &c. Was soll das, what shall that—supply seyn, be, what shall that be, what does it tend to, what does that mean? This is sometimes fully expressed by, was soll das heißen what is that to mean, what is the meaning of that, what do you mean by that? From that elliptical mode of speaking, the following significations may be assigned to sollen: *a)* To mean. Examples: Was sollen die sieben Lämmer, what mean the seven lambs? Was soll das Geschwätz, what means that talk? Was sollen diese Kränze, what mean these wreaths? Was soll aber dieser, but what means this man? In all these phrases, the infinitive seyn, or in the last thun, may be understood. *b)* To be intended. Ex. Sie sollen alle für mein Haus, they are all intended for my house. Wem soll denn dieser Strauß, for whom is this nosegay intended? Seyn, to be, may here again be understood. *c)* To tend to, to serve some purpose, to be of a certain use, to be good for. Ex. Wozu soll diese Er=

niedrigung, what purpose does this humiliation serve, what does it tend to, of what use is it? Was soll mir die Erstgeburt, of what use is primogeniture to me? Was soll mir das Geld, what is the use of the money?—It may be lastly observed, that sometimes the English words, *may*, *can*, *will*, or in the preterimperfect, *might*, *could*, *would*, will aptly render the German phrases, in which sollen occurs.

Ich kann, I can. Infinitive, können. It signifies 1) To be able. Lat. *posse*, Fr. *pouvoir*. 2) To be permitted, to have the liberty to do a thing. Thus it stands frequently, where the English put *may*. For example: Sie können das thun, wenn Sie wollen, you may do that, if you like. Indeed, it is more usual to express that idea by the verb können, than by mögen. The infinitive, which generally follows after können, is sometimes left out: as, Gott kann alles was er will, God can do all he willeth, supply thun, do. Hence 3) the significations, *to have got by heart*, *to be able to say*; and *to know*, *to understand*, may be explained, though in ancient German, the verb seems really to have signified *to know*, (*savoir*), as the old English *to can*.* Examples: Der Knabe kann seine Aufgabe, the boy can say his lesson, knows his lesson by

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* In the Scotch idiom, the word *to can* is still found, for ex. "What we first learn we best *can*," *i. e.* what we first learn, we know best. See Ramsay's Scots Proverbs, Ch. XI. "Other prayers *can* I none," *i. e.* I know no other prayer. Walter Scott's Lay of the Last Minstrel, Canto II. St. 6.

heart; er kann schöne Lieder, he knows pretty songs, he can sing pretty songs. Here the infinitives sagen, singen, to say, to sing, may be understood. Können Sie Deutsch, do you know German? Er kann Griechisch, he knows Greek. In such instances, lesen, to read, sprechen, to speak, verstehen, to understand, or similar infinitives, may be supplied.

Ich darf, I dare. Infinitive, dürfen. This verb signifies 1) To dare, to venture. 2) To be allowed, not to be restrained, answering to *may*, *dare*. For example: Darf ich fragen, may I ask? Sie dürfen es wissen, you may know it. With the negative, it is to be rendered, by *may not*, *must not*, *dare not*. 3) Frequently, the English verb *need* expresses it. 4) The preterimperfect potential, dürfte denotes a probable contingency, and may be translated by *might*, *may*, *need*, *should*, *would*, as is most suitable. For example: Es dürfte vielleicht wahr seyn, it might perhaps be true; es dürfte alsdann nicht nothwendiger Weise der Fall seyn, it need not, then, necessarily be the case. In these instances, it has the infinitive after it. When it occurs without an infinitive, it is by ellipsis, so that some infinitive is to be understood. Ex: Er darf alles was er kann, he dares to do all he is able, where thun, to do, may be supplied. Er darf nicht in das Haus, he dares not, or may not, come into the house, where kommen, to come, is understood.—It has sometimes the genitive, or accusative, after it, signifying to want, to need, to be in need of; but this signification is obsolete.

Ich muß, I must. Infinitive, müssen. It coincides pretty exactly with the English *Must*; now and then, it is to be rendered by *ought*; and not unfrequently the terms,

to be obliged, am to, art to, is to, are to, answer to the signification. With the negative, it occasionally expresses, *need not*. Sometimes, it has a mere potential meaning, and is to be translated by *may*. It occurs elliptically, when some infinitive is understood as, Ich muß zurück, understand gehen, I must *(go)* back.

Ich lasse, I let. Infinitive, lassen, to let, to suffer. It also means *to leave; and to leave off*. It farther signifies *to get, to procure to be, to cause:* as, Ein Haus bauen lassen, to get a house built; einen Rock machen lassen, to get a coat made. When combined with the third reciprocal pronoun, it seems often equivalent to the English *may*, or *is to be:* as, das läßt sich nicht thun, that is not to be done; davon ließe sich vieles sagen, of that much might be said; daß läßt sich nicht begreifen, that is not to be comprehended. As an auxiliary to the imperative, the Germans use it only for the first person plural, of that mood.*

2. In English, the auxiliary, *to be*, is joined with the participle present, to form what is called *the definite*, or *determined, time:*† as, *I am (now) writing, I was (then) loving*. Such a combination is foreign to the German language, in which the definite time is not distinguished, from the others Ich schreibe, stands for I write, and I am writing; ich schrieb, for I wrote, and I was writing.

3. Another peculiarity of the English tongue consists

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* See p. 260, note.

† See Lowth's English Grammar, p. 63.

in the verb *Do*, employed to express the present, and past imperfect, of the verb active, and neuter, marking the action, or time, with greater force, and distinction: as, *I do love thee*. It is also of frequent, and almost necessary, use, in interrogative and negative sentences.* This mode of expression is not quite unknown to the Germans: for it is, in some provinces, to be met with among the lower people: as, Ich that lieben, I did love; thun Sie ihm schreiben, do write to him; but it is utterly banished from the general, and classical language.

SECTION II.

CONJUGATION OF REGULAR VERBS.

THERE is but one conjugation of the Regular Verb, of which the following is a representation, in the Active Voice:

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1 person, *e*, as: Ich Lobe, I praise.	1 person, *e*.
2 person, *est*, or *st*.	2 ——— *est*.
3 ——— *et*, or *t*.	3 ——— *e*.

* See Lowth, p. 64.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1 person, *en.*	1 ——— *en.*
2 ——— *et*, or *t.*	2 ——— *et.*
3 ——— *en*,	3 ——— *en.*

Preterimperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1 ——— *ete*, or *te.*	1 ——— *ete.*
2 ——— *etest*, or *test.*	2 ——— *etest.*
3 ——— *ete*, or *te.*	3 ——— *ete.*
Plural.	*Plural.*
1 ——— *eten*, or *ten.*	1 ——— *eten.*
2 ——— *etet*, or *tet.*	2 ——— *etet.*
3 ——— *eten*, or *ten.*	3 ——— *eten.*

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	1 ——— *en.*
2 ——— *e.*	2 ——— *et*, or *t.*
3 ——— *e.*	3 ——— *en*,

INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLES.
Present, *en.*	Present, *end.*
	Preterite, *ge-et*, or *ge-t.*

General Rules.

I. The other tenses are compounded with auxiliaries; namely, the preterperfect, and pluperfect, with Haben, (or, if the verb be a neuter, of a particular description, with Seyn,) and the preterite participle: the futures with Werden, and the infinitive.

II. The first and third persons plural, of the present tense, are always like the infinitive, and vice versâ.—The first and third singular, and the first and third plural, of the preterimperfect, are respectively alike. This applies to all verbs, both regular and irregular.

III. The preterite participle has everywhere the syllable *ge* prefixed to it, except in verbs compound inseparable, and some others, which make the infinitive in *ieren*, or *iren:* as Regieren, to govern; handthieren, to handle; haselieren, to jest; spatzieren, to walk; stolzieren, to be proud; buchstabieren, to spell; barbiren, to shave; rebelliren, to rebel; marschiren, to march; protestiren, to protest; variiren, to vary; copiren, to copy.

IV. The radical vowels of regular verbs are never changed. If, for instance, fragen, to ask, be considered as a regular, it is not correct to make the second and third person sing. pres. indic. frägst, frägt, transforming the vowel *a* into the diphthong *ä*.

V. The *e* before *st*, in the second pers. sing. pres. ind.; before *t*, in the third pers. sing. and second pers. plural:

likewise before *t*, throughout the pret. imp., and before the same letter in the pret. partic. is commonly thrown out, when from such an abridgement no harshness arises, in the pronunciation. But it must be observed, that this is only allowable in the indicative mood; and would be improper in the subjunctive.

VI. In verbs that have the letters *l*, or *r*, in the last syllable, the *e* of inflection, after those letters, if it be not itself the last letter, is always omitted, even, in the infinitive: as, Sammeln, to collect, for sammelen; dauern, to last, for daueren. Sometimes the *e*, before *l* and *r*, is cast away: as, Ich sammle, I collect, for sammele, du sammlest, thou collectest, for sammelst, (sammelest); er sammlet, for sammelt. Es dauret, it lasts, for es dauert. However, this mode of contraction is neither so regular, nor so much in use, as the former.

VII. The Passive Voice is universally formed by means of Werden, the third auxiliary.

Active Voice.

Loben, to praise.

Lobe, pres.;—lobete, or lobte, pret. imperf.;—gelobet, or gelobt, pret. part.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present Tense.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich lobe, I praise.	1. Ich lobe, (if) I praise.
2. Du lobest, or lobst, thou praisest.	2. Du lobest, (if) thou praise.
3. Er lobet, or lobt, he praises.	3. Er lobe, (if) he praise.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir loben, we praise.	1. Wir loben, we praise.
2. Ihr lobet, or lobt, you praise.	2. Ihr lobet, you praise.
3. Sie loben, they praise.	3. Sie loben, they praise.

Preterimperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich lobte, I praised.	1. Ich lobete, (if) I praised.
2. Du lobtest, thou praisedst.	2. Du lobetest, (if) thou praised.
3. Er lobte, he praised.	3. Er lobete, he praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir lobten, we praised.	1. Wir lobeten, we praised.
2. Ihr lobtet, you praised.	2. Ihr lobetet, you praised.
3. Sie lobten, they praised.	3. Sie lobeten, they praised.

Preterperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich habe gelobt, I have praised.	1. Ich habe gelobt, (if) I have praised.
2. Du hast gelobt, thou hast praised.	2. Du habest gelobt, (if) thou have praised.
3. Er hat gelobt, he has praised.	3. Er habe gelobt, (if) he have praised.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir haben gelobt, we have praised.	1. Wir haben gelobt, we have praised.
2. Ihr habt gelobt, you have praised.	2. Ihr habet gelobt, you have praised.
3. Sie haben gelobt, they have praised.	3. Sie haben gelobt, they have praised.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich hatte gelobt, I had praised.	1. Ich hätte gelobt, (if) I had praised.
2. Du hattest gelobt, thou hadst praised.	2. Du hättest gelobt, (if) thou had praised.
3. Er hatte gelobt, he had praised.	3. Er hätte gelobt, he had praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir hatten gelobt, we had praised.	1. Wir hätten gelobt, we had praised.
2. Ihr hattet gelobt, you had praised.	2. Ihr hättet gelobt, you had praised.
3. Sie hatten gelobt, they had praised.	3. Sie hätten gelobt, they had praised.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir loben, we praise.	1. Wir loben, we praise.
2. Ihr lobet, or lobt, you praise.	2. Ihr lobet, you praise.
3. Sie loben, they praise.	3. Sie loben, they praise.

Preterimperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich lobte, I praised.	1. Ich lobete, (if) I praised.
2. Du lobtest, thou praisedst.	2. Du lobetest, (if) thou praised.
3. Er lobte, he praised.	3. Er lobete, he praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir lobten, we praised.	1. Wir lobeten, we praised.
2. Ihr lobtet, you praised.	2. Ihr lobetet, you praised.
3. Sie lobten, they praised.	3. Sie lobeten, they praised.

Preterperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich habe gelobt, I have praised.	1. Ich habe gelobt, (if) I have praised.
2. Du hast gelobt, thou hast praised.	2. Du habest gelobt, (if) thou have praised.
3. Er hat gelobt, he has praised.	3. Er habe gelobt, (if) he have praised.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir haben gelobt, we have praised.	1. Wir haben gelobt, we have praised.
2. Ihr habt gelobt, you have praised.	2. Ihr habet gelobt, you have praised.
3. Sie haben gelobt, they have praised.	3. Sie haben gelobt, they have praised.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich hatte gelobt, I had praised.	1. Ich hätte gelobt, (if) I had praised.
2. Du hattest gelobt, thou hadst praised.	2. Du hättest gelobt, (if) thou had praised.
3. Er hatte gelobt, he had praised.	3. Er hätte gelobt, he had praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir hatten gelobt, we had praised.	1. Wir hätten gelobt, we had praised.
2. Ihr hattet gelobt, you had praised.	2. Ihr hättet gelobt, you had praised.
3. Sie hatten gelobt, they had praised.	3. Sie hätten gelobt, they had praised.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde loben, I shall praise.	1. Ich werde loben, (if I shall praise.
2. Du wirst loben, thou shalt, or wilt, praise.	2. Du werdest loben, thou shalt praise.
3. Er wird loben, he shall, or will, praise.	3. Er werde loben, he shall praise.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden loben, we shall praise.	1. Wir werden loben, we shall praise.
2. Ihr werdet loben, you shall, or will, praise.	2. Ihr werdet loben, you shall praise.
3. Sie werden loben, they shall, or will, praise.	3. Sie werden loben, they shall praise.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gelobt haben, I shall have praised.	1. Ich werde gelobt haben, (if) I shall have praised.
2. Du wirst gelobt haben, thou shalt, or wilt, have praised &c.	2. Du werdest gelobt haben, (if) thou shalt have praised, &c.

First future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde loben, I should, or would praise.
2. Du würdest loben, thou shouldst, or wouldst, praise.
3. Er würde loben, he should, or would, praise.

Plural.

1. Wir würden, loben, we should, or would, praise.
2. Ihr würdet loben, you should, or would, praise.
3. Sie würden loben, they should, or would, praise.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gelobt haben, I should, or would have praised
2. Du würdest gelobt haben, thou shouldst, or wouldst have praised, &c

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Loben wir, let us praise.)
2. Lobe (du), praise, (thou)	2. Lobet, or lobt (ihr), praise (you).
3. Lobe er, praise he, or let him praise.	3. Loben sie, praise they, or let them praise.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. Loben, to praise.
Pret. imperf. Gelobt haben, to have praised.
Future. Loben werden, to be about to praise.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Lobend, praising.
Preterit. Gelobet, or gelobt, praised.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Gelobt werden, to be praised.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gelobt, I am praised.	1. Ich werde gelobt, (if) I be praised.
2. Du wirst gelobt, thou art praised.	2. Du werdest gelobt, (if) thou be praised.
3. Er wird gelobt, he is praised.	3. Er werde gelobt, (if) he be praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden gelobt, we are praised.	1. Wir werden gelobt, (if) we be praised.
2. Ihr werdet gelobt, you are praised.	2. Ihr werdet gelobt, (if) you be praised.
3. Sie werden gelobt, they are praised.	3. Sie werden gelobt, (if) they be praised.
Preterimperfect.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich wurde (or ward) gelobt, I was praised.	1. Ich würde gelobt, (if) I were praised.
2. Du wurdest (or wardest), gelobt, thou wast praised.	2. Du würdest gelobt, (if) thou wert praised.
3. Er wurde (or ward) gelobt, he was praised.	3. Er würde gelobt, (if) he were praised.

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* See note to page 266.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir wurden gelobt, we were praised.	1. Wir würden gelobt, we were praised.
2. Ihr wurdet gelobt, you were praised.	2. Ihr würdet gelobt, you were praised.
3. Sie wurden gelobt, they were praised.	3. Sie würden gelobt, they were praised.

Preterperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich bin gelobt worden, I have been praised.	1. Ich sey gelobt worden, (if) I have been praised.
2. Du bist gelobt worden, thou hast been praised.	2. Du seyest gelobt worden, (if) thou have been prais.
3. Er ist gelobt worden, he has been praised	3. Er sey gelobt worden, (if) he have been praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir sind gelobt worden, we have been praised.	1. Wir seyen gelobt worden we have been praised.
2. Ihr seyd gelobt worden, you have been praised.	2. Ihr seyed gelobt worden, you have been praised.
3. Sie sind gelobt worden, they have been praised.	3. Sie seyen gelobt worden, they have been praised.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich war gelobt worden, I had been praised.	1. Ich wäre gelobt worden, (if) I had been praised.
2. Du warest gelobt worden, thou hadst been praised. &c.	2. Du wärest gelobt worden, (if) thou had been praised, &c.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gelobt werden, I shall be praised.	1. Ich werde gelobt werden, (if) I shall be praised.
2. Du wirst gelobt werden, thou shalt, or wilt, be praised.	2. Du werdest gelobt werden, thou shalt be praised.
3. Er wird gelobt werden, he shall, or will, be praised.	3. Er werde gelobt werden, he shall be praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden gelobt werden we shall be praised.	1. Wir werden gelobt werden we shall be praised.
2. Ihr werdet gelobt werden, you shall, or will, be praised.	2. Ihr werdet gelobt werden, you shall be praised.
3. Sie werden gelobt werden, they shall, or will, be praised.	3. Sie werden gelobt werden, they shall be praised.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gelobt worden seyn, I shall have been praised.	1. Ich werde gelobt worden seyn, (if) I shall have been praised.
2. Du wirst gelobt worden seyn, thou shalt, or willt, have been praised, &c.	2. Du werdest gelobt worden seyn, thou shalt have been praised, &c.

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gelobt werden, I should be praised.
2. Du würdest gelobt werden, thou shouldst, or wouldst, be praised.
3. Er würde gelobt werden, he should, or would, be praised

Plural.

1. Wir würden gelobt werden, we should, or would, be praised.
2. Ihr würdet gelobt werden, you should, or would, be praised.
3. Sie würden gelobt werden, they should, or would, be praised.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gelobt worden seyn, I should have been praised.
2. Du würdest gelobt worden seyn, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have been praised, &c

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Werden wir gelobt, let us be praised.)
2. Werde (du) gelobt, be thou praised.	2. Werdet (ihr) gelobt, be you praised.
3. Werde er gelobt, be he praised, or let him be praised.	3. Werden sie gelobt, be they praised, or let them be praised.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gelobt werden, I shall be praised.	1. Ich werde gelobt werden, (if) I shall be praised.
2. Du wirst gelobt werden, thou shalt, or wilt, be praised.	2. Du werdest gelobt werden, thou shalt be praised.
3. Er wird gelobt werden, he shall, or will, be praised.	3. Er werde gelobt werden, he shall be praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden gelobt werden we shall be praised.	1. Wir werden gelobt werden we shall be praised.
2. Ihr werdet gelobt werden, you shall, or will, be praised.	2. Ihr werdet gelobt werden, you shall be praised.
3. Sie werden gelobt werden, they shall, or will, be praised.	3. Sie werden gelobt werden, they shall be praised.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gelobt worden seyn, I shall have been praised.	1. Ich werde gelobt worden seyn, (if) I shall have been praised.
2. Du wirst gelobt worden seyn, thou shalt, or willt, have been praised, &c.	2. Du werdest gelobt worden seyn, thou shalt have been praised, &c.

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gelobt werden, I should be praised.
2. Du würdest gelobt werden, thou shouldst, or wouldst, be praised.
3. Er würde gelobt werden, he should, or would, be praised

Plural.

1. Wir würden gelobt werden, we should, or would, be praised.
2. Ihr würdet gelobt werden, you should, or would, be praised.
3. Sie würden gelobt werden, they should, or would, be praised.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gelobt worden seyn, I should have been praised.
2. Du würdest gelobt worden seyn, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have been praised, &c

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Werden wir gelobt, let us be praised.)
2. Werde (du) gelobt, be thou praised.	2. Werdet (ihr) gelobt, be you praised.
3. Werde er gelobt, be he praised, or let him be praised.	3. Werden sie gelobt, be they praised, or let them be praised.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Gelobt werden, to be praised.

Pret. perf. Gelobt worden seyn, to have been praised.

Fut. Werden gelobt werden, to be about to be praised.

Note.—In the conjugation of the passive voice, the participle worden, of the auxiliary, is used, in preference to geworden, because the latter, when joined with the preterite participle of another verb, would most frequently cause a disagreeable repetition of the syllable ge.—Sometimes, worden is omitted in the past tenses, as Ich bin gelobt for gelobt worden, &c: but it should be put, whenever those times are to be pointedly, or distinctly, expressed.

SECTION III.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

These verbs deviate, for the most part, in the preterimperfect tense, and the preterite participle. Some differ in the present tense, and several in the imperative mood.

The number of irregular verbs amounts, at present, to upwards of two hundred. Formerly, it was more considerable; but it has decreased with the progressive cultivation of the language. Several verbs, which, at an earlier period, had an anomalous form, are now inflected according to the common standard of conjugation. There are others, of which, even at this day, the irregular inflection is usual, though, at the same time, they may, without offence, be conjugated in a regular manner. In the following list, those, whose irregular character is become obsolete, will be marked by a double star (**); and those which are, in the present age, varied in both ways, with a single star(*). The latter, it is possible, may, like the former, by degrees, be divested of their irregular shape; and new attempts of regularity may perhaps be made upon others. For such is the nature of the human mind, that it seeks correspondence and uniformity, by which its operations are facilitated.

AN ALPHABETICAL LIST OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
B				
* Backen, to bake	2. bäckst, 3. bäckt		buck	gebacken.
Bedingen, to bargain, to make conditions			bedung	bedungen.
Befehlen, to command	2. befiehlst, 3. befiehlt	befiehl	befahl, or befohl	befohlen.
Befleißen, or befleißigen, (sich, reflective) to apply one's self			befliß	beflissen.
Beginnen, to begin			begann	begonnen.
Beißen, to bite			biß	gebissen.
** Bellen, to bark	2. billst, 3. billt	bill	boll	gebollen.
Bergen, to conceal	2. birgst, 3. birgt	birg	barg	geborgen.
Bersten, to burst	2. birstest, 3. birst, or birstet	birst	borst	geborsten.
Besinnen, (sich, reflective) to recollect			besann	besonnen.
Besitzen, to possess			besaß	besessen.
Betriegen, or betrügen, to cheat, to deceive			betrog	betrogen.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Bewegen, to move, to induce, to persuade†			bewog	bewogen.
Biegen, to bend			bog	gebogen.
Bieten (or biethen,) to bid			bot, or both	geboten, or gebothen.
Binden, to bind			band	gebunden.
Bitten, to beg			bat	gebeten.
Blasen, to blow	2. bläsest, 3. bläst, or bläset		blies	geblasen.
Bleiben, to remain			blieb	geblieben.
* Bleichen, to bleach, to whiten			blich	geblichen.
* Braten, to roast	2. brätst, 3. brät		briet	gebraten.
Brechen, to break	2. brichst, 3. bricht	brich	brach	gebrochen.
* Brennen, to burn			brannte	gebrannt.
Bringen, to bring			brachte	gebracht.
D				
Denken, to think			dachte	gedacht.
* Dingen, to bargain; also, to hire			dung	gedungen.
Dreschen, to thrash	2. drischest, 3. drischt	drisch	drasch	gedroschen.
Dringen, to urge			drang	gedrungen.
Dürfen, to dare ‡	1. darf, 2. darfst, 3. darf		durfte	gedurft.

† The verb is inflected regularly, when it simply expresses, to put in motion; and when it signifies, to affect, to touch pathetically, it is irregular.

‡ Herder writes dörfen, for dürfen; and dörfte, for dürfte: for what reason, I know not. See Ideen der Philosophie der Geschichte der Menschheit, Vol. II. p. 3. and Zerstreute Blätter, Vol. I. p. 344.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
E				
Empfangen, to receive	2. empfängst, 3. empfängt		empfing	empfangen.
Empfehlen, to recommend	2. empfiehlst, 3. empfiehlt	empfiehl	empfahl, or empfohl	empfohlen.
Empfinden, to feel, to perceive			empfand	empfunden.
Entrinnen, to escape, to run away			entrann	entronnen.
Erbleichen, to grow pale			erblich	erblichen.
Ergreifen, to seize			ergriff	ergriffen.
Erkören, erküren, or erkühren, to choose			erkor, or erkohr	erkoren, or erkohren
Erlöschen, to be extinguished, to become extinct	2. erlischest, 3. erlischt, or erlischet	erlisch	erlosch	erloschen.
Erschallen, to resound			erscholl	erschollen.
Erschrecken, to be frightened	2. erschrickst, or erschrickest 3. erschrickt, or erschricket	erschrick	erschrak	erschrocken.
Erwägen, to weigh, to consider			erwog	erwogen.
Essen, to eat	2. issest, 3. ißt, or isset		aß	gegessen.
F				
Fahren, to drive a carriage; also to go in a carriage	2. fährst, 3. fährt		fuhr	gefahren.
Fallen, to fall	2. fällst, 3. fällt		fiel	gefallen.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
* Falten, to fold †	2. fältst, 3. fält		[fielt]	gefalten
Fangen, to catch	2. fängst, 3. fängt		fing	gefangen.
Fechten, to fence; also to fight	2. fichtest, or fichtst 3. ficht	ficht, or fechte	focht	gefochten.
Finden, to find			fand	gefunden.
* Flechten, to plait, to twist	2 flichtest, 3. flicht	flicht, or flechte	flocht	geflochten.
Fliegen, to fly, to move with wings			flog	geflogen.
Fliehen, to fly, to run away			floh	geflohen.
Fließen, to flow			floß	geflossen.
* Fragen, to ask	2. frägst, 3. frägt		frug	gefragt.
Fressen, to eat, applied to the brute creation	2. frissest, 3. frißt	friß	fraß	gefressen.
Frieren, to freeze			fror	gefroren.
G				
Gähren, to ferment			gohr	gegohren.
Gebähren, or gebären, to bring forth			gebahr	gebohren, or geboren.
Geben, to give	2. gibst, 3. gibt (2. giebst, 3. giebt‡)	gib, or gieb	gab	gegeben.
Gebieten, or gebiethen, to command			gebot, or geboth	geboten, or gebothen.

† This verb it would be preferable to conjugate regularly throughout, were it not for the preterite participle, which almost invariably appears in the irregular form. The imperfect, fielt, is entirely obsolete.

‡ The right way of spelling, and pronouncing, is, gibst, gibt. Imperative, gib. See Adelung's Orthography, p.225. But, giebst, giebt, gieb, are nevertheless frequently written, though less often spoken.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
E				
Empfangen, to receive	2. empfängst, 3. empfängt		empfing	empfangen.
Empfehlen, to recommend	2. empfiehlst, 3. empfiehlt	empfiehl	empfahl, or empfohl	empfohlen.
Empfinden, to feel, to perceive			empfand	empfunden.
Entrinnen, to escape, to run away			entrann	entronnen.
Erbleichen, to grow pale			erblich	erblichen.
Ergreifen, to seize			ergriff	ergriffen.
Erkören, erküren, or erkühren, to choose			erkor, or erkohr	erkoren, or erkohren
Erlöschen, to be extinguished, to become extinct	2. erlischest, 3. erlischt, or erlischet	erlisch	erlosch	erloschen.
Erschallen, to resound			erscholl	erschollen.
Erschrecken, to be frightened	2. erschrickst, or erschrickest 3. erschrickt, or erschricket	erschrick	erschrak	erschrocken.
Erwägen, to weigh, to consider			erwog	erwogen.
Essen, to eat	2. issest, 3. ißt, or isset		aß	gegessen.
F				
Fahren, to drive a carriage; also to go in a carriage	2. fährst, 3. fährt		fuhr	gefahren.
Fallen, to fall	2. fällst, 3. fällt		fiel	gefallen.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
* Falten, to fold †	2. fältst, 3. fält		[fielt]	gefalten
Fangen, to catch	2. fängst, 3. fängt		fing	gefangen.
Fechten, to fence; also to fight	2. fichtest, or fichtst 3. ficht	ficht, or fechte	focht	gefochten.
Finden, to find			fand	gefunden.
* Flechten, to plait, to twist	2 flichtest, 3. flicht	flicht, orflechte	flocht	geflochten.
Fliegen, to fly, to move with wings			flog	geflogen.
Fliehen, to fly, to run away			floh	geflohen.
Fließen, to flow			floß	geflossen.
* Fragen, to ask	2. frägst, 3. frägt		frug	gefragt.
Fressen, to eat, applied to the brute creation	2. frissest, 3. frißt	friß	fraß	gefressen.
Frieren, to freeze			fror	gefroren.
G				
Gähren, to ferment			gohr	gegohren.
Gebähren, or gebären, to bring forth			gebahr	gebohren, or geboren.
Geben, to give	2. gibst, 3. gibt (2. giebst, 3. giebt‡)	gib, or gieb	gab	gegeben.
Gebieten, or gebiethen, to command			gebot, or geboth	geboten, or gebothen.

† This verb it would be preferable to conjugate regularly throughout, were it not for the preterite participle, which almost invariably appears in the irregular form. The imperfect, fielt, is entirely obsolete.

‡ The right way of spelling, and pronouncing, is, gibst, gibt. Imperative, gib. See Adelung's Orthography, p.225. But, giebst, giebt, gieb, are nevertheless frequently written, though less often spoken.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
* Gedeihen, to prosper			gedieh	gediehen.
Gefallen, to please	2. gefällst, 3. gefällt		gefiel	gefallen.
Gehen, to walk; also, to go			ging	gegangen.
Gelingen, to succeed, to turn out according to wish (used only in the third pers. sing. & plur.			gelang	gelungen.
Gelten, to be estimated; also, to cost	2. giltst, or gilteſt, 3. gilt		galt	gegolten.
Genesen, to recover from illness			genas	genesen.
Genießen, to enjoy			genoß	genossen.
Gerathen, to get into, to fall into; to hit upon, to fall upon	2. geräthst, 3. geräth		gerieth	gerathen.
Geschehen, to happen, to be done, to come to pass †	3. geschieht		geschah	geschehen.
Gewinnen, to win, to gain			gewann	gewonnen.
Gießen, to pour			goß	gegossen.
Gleichen, to be like, to resemble			glich	geglichen.
* Gleiten, to glide			glitt	geglitten.
* Glimmen, to shine, or burn faintly			glomm	geglommen.
Graben, to dig	2. gräbst, 3. gräbt		grub	gegraben.
Greiffen, or greifen, to seize, to lay hold of			griff	gegriffen.

† It is only used in the third person, and never joined with an infinitive, as the English *to happen*; for ex. *he happened to see me*, which mode of construction is unknown to the Germans.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle
H				
Halten, to hold	2. hältst, 3. hält		hielt	gehalten.
Hangen, to hang, to be suspended, v.neut.†	2. hängst, 3. hängt		hing	gehangen.
* Hauen, to cut, to hew			hieb	gehauen.
Heben, to heave, to lift			hob	gehoben.
Heißen, to bid, to name; to be named	2. heissest (or heißt) 3. heißt (or heisset)‡		hieß	geheißen.
Helfen, to help	2. hilfst, 3. hilft	hilf	half	geholfen.
J (consonant)				
** Jagen, to drive, to chase			jug	gejagen.
K				
Keifen, to chide, to scold			kiff	gekiffen.
Kennen, to know, to be acquainted with §			kannte	gekannt.

† The transitive verb, to hang, to suspend, is hängen, for which hangen, is sometimes mistaken.
‡ See Adelung's Orthography, p. 287.
§ It is the French *connoître*, which is applied to the knowledge that we have of persons, or the exterior form of things but does not express the abstracted act of knowing.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Klingen, to sound, to ring			klang	geklungen.
Kneipen, to pinch			knipp	geknissen.
Kneifen, to pinch			kniff	geknippen.
Kommen, to come	2. kömmst, or kommst, 3. kömmt, or kommt		kam	gekommen.
Können, to be able	1. kann, 2. kannst, 3. kann		konnte	gekonnt.
Kreischen, to scream			krisch	gekrischen.
* Kreißen, to be in labour			kriß	gekrissen.
Kriechen, to creep			kroch	gekrochen.
L				
* Laden, to load	2. lädst, 3. lädt		lud	geladen.
Lassen, to let, to permit; also, to leave	2. lässest, or läßt 3. läßt, or lässet†		ließ	gelassen.
Laufen, to run	2. läufst, 3. läuft		lief	gelaufen.
Leiden, to suffer			litt	gelitten.
Leihen, to lend			lieh	geliehen.
Lesen, to read	2. liesest, or ließt, 3. liest	lies	las	gelesen.
Liegen, to lie, to rest horizontally; also to be situated			lag	gelegen.
** Löschen, to extinguish, to be extinguished	2. lischest, 3. lischt	lisch	losch	geloschen.
Lügen, to lie, to utter a falsehood			log	gelogen.

† Adelung's Orthography, p. 239. See of the verb itself, above, p. 279.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
M				
Mahlen, to grind †				gemahlen.
Meiden, to avoid, to shun			mied	gemieden.
* Melken, to milk			molk	gemolken.
Messen, to measure	2. missest, 3. mißt	miß	maß	gemessen.
Mißfallen, to displease	2. mißfällst, 3. mißfällt		mißfiel	mißfallen.
Mögen, to be allowed; to be able ‡	1. mag, 2. magst, 3. mag		mochte	gemocht.
Müssen, to be obliged, to be forced §	1. muß, 2. mußt, 3. muß		mußte	gemußt.
N				
Nehmen, to take	2. nimmst, 3. nimmt	nimm	nahm	genommen.
* Nennen, to name			nannte	genannt.
P				
Pfeifen, to whistle			pfiff	gepfiffen.
* Pflegen, to foster, to cherish ‖			pflog	gepflogen.
Preisen, to extol, to praise			pries	gepriesen.

† Mahlen, to paint, is perfectly regular.
‡ See the observations on the auxiliary verbs. Sect. 1. p. 272.
§ See sect. 1. p. 272.
‖ Pflegen, to be accustomed, to be wont, is always regular.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Q				
Quellen, to spring forth (of fluids)	2. quillst, 3. quillt	quill	quoll	gequollen.
R				
** Rächen, to avenge			roch	gerochen.
Rathen, to advise; also, to guess	2. räthst, 3. räth		rieth	gerathen.
Reiben, to rub			rieb	gerieben.
Reißen, to tear			riß	gerissen.
Reiten, to ride (on horseback)			ritt	geritten.
*Rennen, to run with great velocity, to rush			rannte	gerannt.
Riechen, to smell			roch	gerochen.
Ringen, to wrestle			rang	gerungen.
Rinnen, to run (of fluids), to leak; also, to coagulate			rann	geronnen.
Rufen, to call, to halloo			rief	gerufen.
S				
** Salzen, to salt †	[2. sälzest, 3. sälzt]		[salz]	gesalzen.
Sauffen, or saufen, to drink (applied to brutes			soff	gesoffen.
Saugen, to suck			sog	gesogen.

† The Preterite participle of this verb is very common; the other irregular parts are become obsolete.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Schaffen, to create †			schuf	geschaffen.
** Schallen, to sound			scholl	geschollen.
Scheiden, to separate, to part			schied	geschieden.
Scheinen, to shine; also, to seem, to appear			schien	geschienen.
Schelten, to chide	2. schiltst, 3. schilt	schilt	schalt	gescholten.
Scheren, to shear	2. schierst, 3. schiert	schier	schor	geschoren.
Schieben, to shove			schob	geschoben.
Schießen, to shoot			schoß	geschossen.
Schinden, to flay			schund	geschunden.
Schlafen, to sleep	2. schläfst, 3. schläft		schlief	geschlafen.
Schlagen, to beat	2. schlägst, 3. schlägt		schlug	geschlagen.
Schleichen, to sneak			schlich	geschlichen.
Schleiffen, or schleifen, to grind, to sharpen, to polish ‡			schliff	geschliffen.
Schliefen, to creep, to crawl			schloff	geschloffen.
Schließen, to shut, to lock; also, to conclude			schloß	geschlossen.
Schlingen, to twine, to sling, to devour			schlang	geschlungen.
Schmeißen, to fling			schmiß	geschmissen.
Schmelzen, to melt §	2. schmilzest, 3. schmilzt	schmilz	schmolz	geschmolzen.
Schnauben, to snort			schnob	geschnoben.
Schneiden, to cut			schnitt	geschnitten.
* Schrauben, to screw			schrob	geschroben.

† Schaffen, to prepare, to get, is regular.
‡ Schleiffen, to drag along, to pull down, to demolish, is regular.
§ It is generally irregular, when it is used as a verb neuter; but regular, when it has an active signification.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Schreiben, to write			schrieb	geschrieben.
Schreien, to cry			schrie	geschrien.
Schreiten, to stride			schritt	geschritten.
Schwären, to fester			schwor	geschworen.
Schweigen, to be silent			schwieg	geschwiegen.
* Schwellen, to swell	2. schwillst, 3. schwillt	schwill	schwoll	geschwollen.
Schwimmen, to swim			schwamm	geschwommen.
Schwinden, to disappear			schwand	geschwunden.
Schwingen, to swing			schwang	geschwungen.
Schwören, to swear			schwor, or schwur	geschworen.
Sehen, to see	2. siehst, 3. sieht	sieh	sah,‡ or sahe	gesehen.
* Senden, to send			sandte	gesandt.
Sieden, to boil, to seeth			sott	gesotten.
Singen, to sing			sang	gesungen.
Sinken, to sink			sank	gesunken.
Sinnen, to think, to muse, to meditate			sann	gesonnen.
Sitzen, to sit			saß	gesessen.
Sollen, to be compelled §	1. soll, 2. sollst, 3. soll		sollte	gesollt.
* Spalten, to split			[split]‖	gespalten.
Speien, to spit			spie	gespien.
Spinnen, to spin			spann	gesponnen.

† Schwillst, schwillt, schwill, are rather obsolete.
‡ Wieland sometimes writes sahe, though more frequently sah.
§ See the observations on the auxilary verb, sect. 1. p. 274.
‖ Obsolete.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Sprechen, to speak	2. sprichst, 3. spricht	sprich	sprach	gesprochen.
Sprießen, to sprout			sproß	gesprossen.
Springen, to spring, to leap			sprang	gesprungen.
Stechen, to sting, to prick, to stick, to pierce	2. stichst, 3. sticht	stich	stach,	gestochen.
Stehen, to stand			stand [stund],	gestanden.
Stehlen, to steal	2. stiehlst, 3. stiehlt	stiehl	stahl (or stohl),	gestohlen.
Steigen, to mount, to ascend			stieg,	gestiegen.
Sterben, to die, to lose life	2. stirbst, 3. stirbt	stirb	starb,	gestorben.
Stieben, to fly off with a jerk, or sudden spring			stob,	gestoben.
Stinken, to stink			stank [stunk,]	gestunken.
Stoßen, to push	2. stößest, 3. stößt, or stößet		stieß,	gestoßen.
Streichen, to sweep, or rub along; to strike			strich,	gestrichen.
Streiten, to contend, to quarrel, to combat			stritt,	gestritten.
T				
Tragen, to bear, to carry, to wear	2. trägst, or trägest, 3. trägt, or träget		trug,	getragen.
Treffen, to hit, to touch the mark; also, to meet with	2. triffst, 3. trifft	triff	traf,	getroffen.
Treiben, to drive; also, to exercise, to carry on			trieb,	getrieben.
Treten, to tread	2. trittst, 3. tritt	tritt	trat,	getreten.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
* Triefen, to drop, to distil			troff,	getroffen.
Triegen, to deceive			trog,	getrogen.
Trinken, to drink			trank,	getrunken.
Trügen, the same as Triegen.				
Thun, or thuen, to do	1. thue, 2. thust, 3. thut	thue, or thu	that,	gethan
B †				
Verbergen, to conceal	2. verbirgst, 3. verbirgt	verbirg	verbarg,	verborgen.
Verbieten, to forbid			verbot,	verboten.
Verbleichen, to change to a paler colour, to fade			verblich,	verblichen.
Verbrennen, to burn, to consume with fire			verbrannte,	verbrannt
* Verderben, to spoil, to corrupt, to destroy ‡	2. verdirbst, 3. verdirbt	verdirb	verdarb,	verdorben.
Verdrießen, to offend §			verdroß,	verdrossen.
Vergessen, to forget	2. vergissest, or vergißt, 3. vergisset, or vergißt	vergiß	vergaß,	vergessen.
Vergleichen, to compare			verglich,	verglichen.
** Verhehlen, to conceal			verhohl, or verhahl	verhohlen.
Verlassen, to leave, to quit, to desert	2. verlässest, or verläßt, 3. verlässet, or verläßt	verlaß	verließ	verlassen.

† The verbs, beginning with Ver, are all compounds. Some of the simple verbs are to be found in this list, under their respective letters; but some are become obsolete.
‡ Wieland treats this verb as a regular conjugation.
§ It is only used in the third person.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Verlieren, to lose			verlor	verloren.
Vermeiden, to avoid			vermied	vermieden.
Vermögen, to be able	1. vermag, 2 vermagst, 3. vermag		vermochte	vermocht.
Verschlingen, to devour			verschlang	verschlungen
Verschwinden, to disappear			verschwand	verschwunden.
Verstieben, to fly off, in consequence of a sudden impulse, or jerk			verstob	verstoben.
Vertreten, to sprain the foot by a false step; to spoil by the foot: also, to represent a person; and to intercede for	2. vertrittst, 3. vertritt	vertritt	vertrat	vertreten.
* Verwirren, to confuse, to perplex			verworr	verworren.
Verzeihen, to excuse, to pardon			verzieh	verziehen.
W				
Wachsen, to grow, to vegetate, to increase in size	2. wächsest, or wächst, 3. wächst		wuchs	gewachsen.
* Wägen, to weigh, to examine by the balance			wog	gewogen.
Waschen, to wash	2. wäschest, 3. wäscht		wusch	gewaschen.
** Weben, to weave			wob	gewoben.
Weichen, to yield, to give way			wich	gewichen.
Weisen, to show, to point out			wies	gewiesen.
* Wenden, to turn			wandte	gewandt.
Werben, to sue, to apply for, to endeavour to obtain	2. wirbst, 3. wirbt	wirb	warb	geworben.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Werfen, to throw	2. wirfst, 3. wirft	wirf	warf	geworfen.
Wiegen, to weigh, to have weight			wog	gewogen.
Winden, to wind, to turn			wand	gewunden
Wissen, to know †	1. weiß, 2. weißt‡, 3. weiß		wußte	gewußt.
Wollen, to be willing, to wish	1. will, 2. willst, or willt, 3. will §		wollte	gewollt.
Z				
Zeihen, to accuse of			zieh	geziehen.
Zerstieben, to be suddenly scattered ‖			zerstob	zerstoben.
Ziehen, to draw, to pull			zog	gezogen.
Zwingen, to force, to compel, to constrain			zwang	gezwungen.

† It signifies, to know abstractedly, Latin, *scire*, French, *savoir*.

‡ This is a contraction from weissest. See Adelung's Orthography, p. 289.

§ The irregularity of this verb consists only in the singular number of the present tense; all the remainder follows the regular conjugation.

‖ This is a compound verb; see stieben. Other verbs, beginning with Zer, must be looked for, in this list, under their simples.

Observations.

1. The preceding List exhibits the Irregular Verbs in those parts, which deviate from the rule: in all the rest, they conform to the regular mode of inflection. Let it be observed, that the first person plural, of the present tense, is always like the infinitive, and that thence the conjugation proceeds regularly, the infinitive, indeed, may be considered as the root of the regular parts of the verb. Of the preterimperfect, the third person singular is constantly the same with the first, and the other persons follow, in their terminations, the example of the regular verb. Where the imperative is not marked, as irregular, it may be supposed, that it is to be made of the infinitive, by cutting off the final *n*, or sometimes *en*,

2. The preterimperfect takes, in the subjunctive mood, an *e* at the end: that is to say, when it terminates with a consonant, in the indicative an *e* must be added. Moreover, the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, are, in the subjunctive, changed into the diptthongs, *ä*, *ö*, *ü*. For example; Ich bat, I begged, subjunct. bäte; ich hob, I lifted up subj. höbe; ich trug, I bore, or carried, subj. trüge.—Some verbs assume a different vowel, instead of a diphthong: as, Ich kannte, I knew, subj. kennete; ich nannte, I named subj. nennete; ich rannte, I rushed, subj. rennete. Others have a diptthong, but not that which corresponds with the vowel in the indicative. Of this kind are, Ich befahl, from befehlen, subj. beföhle; begann, from beginnen, subj. begönne; barg, from bergen, subj. bürge; gebahr, from gebähren, subj. geböhre; galt, from gelten, subj. gölte; rann,

from rinnen, subj. rönne; spann, from spinnen, subj. spönne: stahl, from stehlen, subj. stöhle; starb, from sterben, subj. stürbe; verdarb, from verderben, subj. verdürbe; ward, from werden, subj. würde. In the examples first adduced, where *e* is put in the subjunctive, for *a*, this is, in truth, no more than the regular form. For kennete, nennete, rennete are precisely the same as lobete. Of the instances, which have diphthongs, unlike the vowels of the indicative, is to be remarked, that originally a change of the vowels, in the indicative, has taken place: and that befahl, was formerly befohl; barg was burg; gebahr, gebohr; galt, golt; rann, ronn; spann, sponn; starb, sturb; verdarb, verdurb. Some of these are, even now, occasionally used, though perhaps not with sufficient propriety; as, befohl, gebohr.

3. The second and third persons singular, of the present tense, and the second person singular, of the imperative mood, of verbs, which have ie, or ü, in the first syllable, are, in ancient language, and poetically, formed in eu: Biege, 2. beugst, 3. beugt; imperat. beuge: biete, 2. beutst, 3. beut; imper. beut: fliehe, 2. fleuchst, 3. fleucht, imperat. fleuch: fliesse, 2. fleussest, 3. fleußt; imperat. fleuß: lüge, 2. leugst, 3. leugt; imperat. leug: triege, or trüge, 2. treugst, 3. treugt; imperat. treug: ziehe, 2. zeuchst, 3. zeucht imperat. zeuch. This, however, is not a permanent irregularity, and has, on that account, not been noticed in the catalogue of the verbs.

4. Compound verbs are, in general, inflected as their simples. Therefore, if these are irregular, the compounds will be the same. A few are excepted: for instance,

Veranlassen, to occasion, compounded of lassen; berennen, to blockade a town, from rennen; rathschlagen, and berathschlagen, to deliberate, from schlagen—which compounds follow the regular conjugation. The greatest number of compounds, however, adheres to the conjugation of the simple verbs.

SECTION IV.

VERBS NEUTER.

Verbs, which signify an action, that from the subject nominative passes over to an object, or affects a person, or thing, are, in grammar, called *active*, or *transitive*: and those, which do *not* imply the passing over of the action to a certain object, are styled *intransitive*, or *neuter*. Thus, *I love, I hate,* are actives, or transitives, because the action, therein contained, generally refers to an object, which is expressed, as, *I love—my father; I hate—a slanderer.* But *I walk, I ride, I sleep,* marking an independant action, that is to say, an action without relation to an object; or denoting merely a state of being, or acting, come under the denomination of neuters.

It will be perceived, that the line, between verbs active and neuter, cannot be drawn with precision. For those, which commonly are used as actives, may sometimes appear in the shape of neuters: *I love, I hate* may mean, *I am in a state of loving, of hating,* without the mention of a particular object. On the other hand, such as, in general, have the character of neuters, may be transformed into actives, as, *I ride—a horse; I fight—a battle; I walk—a mile*

There would be little more to say of these verbs, were it not necessary to remark, that some of them take, in the preterite tenses, the auxiliary Seyn, *to be*, where, in English, *to have*, is used. These must be pointed out, and described, that the student may not be led into grammatical errour, by the habits of his own language.

Let it, therefore, be noticed, that the following neuters are joined with the auxiliary Seyn, to be.

I. Those, which signify a change, or transition, from one condition, or state, into another. For example: Ausarten, to generate, pret. perf. er ist ausgeartet; ausfallen, to fall out, to turn out, es ist nicht gut ausgefallen, it has not turned out well; einschlafen, to fall asleep, pret. perf. Ich bin eingeschlafen; erblassen, to grow pale; erkalten, to grow cold; erröthen, to grow red, to blush; erschrecken, to get frightened; genesen, to recover from illness, to regain health; gerathen, to get into, to fall into, also to succeed, to prosper; schwellen, to swell; verarmen, to grow poor; verblühen, to fade, to wither; verhungern, to perish with hunger; verschwinden, to disappear; wachsen, to grow, to increase, Add sterben, to die, to expire, and synonymous words, as entschlafen, erbleichen, to expire, umkommen, to perish, &c.; for dying implies a change of condition.

II. Such as note motion, with locality, that is, motion with relation to place, or distance. The place, or distance, may either be named, or understood; in both circumstances, Seyn serves for the auxiliary to the verb, in the past tenses. For instance: Ich bin nach London geritten, I have rode to London; der Feind ist nach der Hauptstadt marschiret, the enemy has marched to the capital. Here the locality is expressed. Frequently it is understood, as in

the verbs compounded with the local particles, ab, off; an, on; auf, upon; aus, out; bey, near; durch, through; ein, into; fort, forth, forward; her, and hin, towards: über, over; um, about; vor, before: vorbey, beside, passing by; weg, away; zu, towards; zurück, back. For example, abreisen, to set off, to depart; anlangen, to come to, to arrive; auftreten, to tread, or step, upon, to step forth; ausſteigen, to get out; beytreten, to step near to, to agree with in opinion; durchſegeln, to sail through; eintreffen, to come into, to arrive at; fortſchleichen, to sneak off; herfliegen, hinfliegen, to fly towards; überlaufen, to run over; umfahren, to drive about, that means, to go the longest way; vordringen, to press forward; vorbeyeilen, to hasten by; wegmarſchiren, to march away; zufliegen, to fly towards. The notion of space, through which the motion proceeds, or in other words, the idea of locality, presents itself to the mind, in those verbs, though the place is not itself nominally introduced.

Motion, however, may also be conceived as mere action, without the association of place, or distance. The verb is, then, conjugated with the first auxiliary, Haben. Thus, reiten, to ride; fahren, to drive; ſpringen, to jump; tanzen, to dance; ſchwimmen, to swim—take, Haben, when they are put without mention of place, or allusion to locality: as, Ich habe geritten, I have rode, or I have been riding; ſie haben gefahren, they have been driving (a carriage); er hat geſprungen, he has jumped; ſie hat getanzt, she has danced, or has been dancing; wir haben geſchwommen, we have been swimming.

The manner of moving being expressed, as, *fast*, *slow*, &c. Seyn again is employed, as the auxiliary; because

this cannot well be imagined, without the recollection of space. For example: Wir sind langsam geritten, we have rode slow; wir sind geschwinde geritten, we have rode fast. Also in spaßieren reiten, Fr. *se promener à cheval*, to take an airing on horseback: as, er ist spaßieren geritten, he has taken an airing on horseback. For though this does not exactly coincide with the preceding examples, yet the manner of motion seems to be intimated, viz. on horseback. And if it should not appear to be connected with the former, let it be remembered as a separate observation, or as an exception.

III. Seyn, is always joined with these verbs: Fallen, to fall; folgen, to follow; gehen, to go; kommen, to come; weichen, to yield, to give way; and haben is never admitted.

IV. Likewise with the following: begegnen, to happen, to occur; bleiben, to remain; gelingen, to succeed, to turn out favourably; geschehen, to happen, to come to pass.—Stehen, is sometimes found with the second auxiliary, Seyn, but most frequently with the first, Haben; indeed, the former may perhaps be considered as a provincial deviation.—Aufstehen, to get up, to rise, though a compound of stehen, is inflected with Seyn, in no instance with Haben, of which the reason seems to be, that it denotes motion with locality.

V. In some verbs it is doubtful, whether seyn, or haben, should be used. For instance, in begegnen, to meet; beharren, to persevere; einkehren, to stop at an inn, or place of recreation; landen, to land; verfahren, to act, to proceed with.

SECTION V.

REFLECTIVE VERBS.

When the action, expressed by a verb, returns back to the subject, from which it proceeds, the verb is called reflective, or reciprocal: as, *I love myself, I cut myself, he hurts himself.*

It must immediately appear, that every verb, implying action, is capable of assuming this form: but there are several, in German, which never are used without the reciprocal pronouns. These are reflectives, in the strictest sense of the word, and to them, in particular, the present section is devoted. May it suffice, out of their number to state the following; Anmaßen, to presume, to claim; anschicken, to prepare; *aufschwingen, to rise; äußern, to intimate, also to come forth, to appear; bedanken, to thank for a thing; *bedenken, to consider; *befinden, to find; *begeben, to resign; *behelfen, to put up with, to be contented; berühmen, to boast; *besinnen, to reflect; *bewerben, to sue, or apply for; einbilden, to imagine; *enthalten, to abstain; *entschließen, to resolve; erbarmen, to pity, to have mercy; freuen, to rejoice; grämen, to grieve getrauen, to be confident; rühmen, to boast; *unterstehen, to venture, to dare; widersetzen, to resist.

It will be useful to show an example of the conjugation of those verbs: and, for that purpose, one shall be selected, the inflection of which is regular. Those marked with a star, are irregular, and must be looked for in the list of irregular verbs.

Sich freuen, to rejoice.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich freue mich, I rejoice.	1. Ich freue mich, (if) I rejoice.
2. Du freuest, or freust dich, thou rejoicest.	2. Du freuest dich, (if) thou rejoice.
3. Er (sie, es) freuet, or freut sich, he (she, it) rejoices.	3. Er (sie, es) freue sich, (if) he (she, it) rejoice.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir freuen uns, we rejoice.	1. Wir freuen uns, we rejoice.
2. Ihr freuet, or freut euch, you rejoice.	2. Ihr freuet euch, you rejoice.
3. Sie freuen sich, they rejoice.	3. Sie freuen sich, they rejoice.
Preterimperfect.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich freuete, or freute mich, I rejoiced.	1. Ich freuete mich, (if) I rejoiced.
2. Du freuetest, or freutest dich, thou rejoicedst, &c.	2. Du freuetest dich, (if) thou rejoiced, &c.
Preterperfect.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich habe mich gefreut, or gefreuet, I have rejoiced.	1. Ich habe mich gefreut, (if) I have rejoiced.
2. Du hast dich gefreut, thou hast rejoiced.	2. Du habest dich gefreut, (if) thou have rejoiced.
3. Er hat sich gefreut, he has rejoiced.	

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	
1. Wir haben uns gefreut, we have rejoiced.	
2. Ihr habt euch gefreut, you have rejoiced.	
3. Sie haben sich gefreut, they have rejoiced.	

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich hatte mich gefreut, I had rejoiced.	1. Ich hätte mich gefreut, (if) I had rejoiced.
2. Du hattest dich gefreut, thou hadst rejoiced.	2. Du hättest dich gefreut, (if) thou hadst rejoiced.
3. Er hatte sich gefreut, he had rejoiced, &c.	3. Er hätte sich gefreut, (if) he had rejoiced, &c.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde mich freuen, I shall rejoice.	1. Ich werde mich freuen, (if) I shall rejoice.
2. Du wirst dich freuen, thou shalt, or wilt, rejoice.	2. Du werdest dich freuen, (if) thou shalt rejoice, &c.
3. Er wird sich freuen, he shall, or will, rejoice.	
Plural.	
1. Wir werden uns freuen, we shall rejoice.	
2. Ihr werdet euch freuen, you shall, or will, rejoice	
3. Sie werden sich freuen, they shall, or will, rejoice.	

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde, mich gefreut haben, I shall have rejoiced.	1. Ich werde mich gefreut haben, (if) I shall have rejoiced.
2. Du wirst dich gefreut haben, thou shalt have rejoiced, &c.	2. Du werdest dich gefreut haben, (if) thou shalt have rejoiced, &c

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde mich freuen, I should, or would, rejoice.
2. Du würdest dich freuen, thou shouldst, or wouldst, rejoice, &c.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular. 1. Ich würde mich gefreut haben, I should, or would, have rejoiced, &c.

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Freuen wir uns, let us rejoice.)
2. Freue (du) dich, rejoice (thou).	2. Freuet (or freut) (ihr) euch, rejoice (you).
3. Freue er (sie, es) sich, let him (her, it) rejoice.	3. Freuen sie sich, let them rejoice.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Sich freuen, to rejoice.

Pret. perfect. Sich gefreut haben, to have rejoiced.

Fut. Sich freuen werden, to be about to rejoice.

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.

Sich freuend, rejoicing.

Observations.

1. Most of the reflective verbs govern the reciprocal pronouns in the accusative, a few in the dative case. Of the latter class are, anmaßen, einbilden, getrauen: as Ich maße mir an, du bildest dir ein, ich getraue mir. The impersonal, es däucht, it seemeth, either takes the accusative, or the dative: as, es däucht mich, or es däucht mir, it seems to me.

2. Some verbs are only used, as reflectives, in a particular signification. For example: Sich bedenken, to pause, for the purpose of reflection, to hesitate, from bedenken, to reflect upon, to consider; sich berufen, to appeal to, from berufen, to call: sich bescheiden, to be contented with, from bescheiden, to point out, to direct, to enjoin; sich fürchten, to be afraid, from fürchten, to fear; sich hüten, to be cautious, to beware, from hüten, to guard; sich verantworten, to excuse one's self, to argue against accusation, from verantworten, to answer for.

3. Others are, in the same signification, employed as simple verbs, and as reflectives: for instance, irren, and sich irren, to be mistaken; scheuen, and sich scheuen, to be shy of a thing; zanken, and sich zanken, to quarrel.

4. The reflective verbs are joined with the first auxiliary, Haben.

SECTION VI.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

Verbs, which only occur in the third person of the singular number, in as much as they are destitute of the other persons, are termed *Impersonal.* Such are, for example, es däucht mich (or mir), or mich (mir) däucht, it seems to me, methinks; es dünkt mich, or mich dünkt, it seems to me; es geziemet sich, it is proper, it is becoming; es ekelt mir, or mir ekelt, it loathes me; es grauet mir (mich), or mir graut, I am afraid. To this class may be added the following, though, in a strict sense, they cannot be called impersonals, because the first and second persons may be used, when required, viz: es donnert, it thunders; es blitzt, it lightens; es regnet, it rains; es schneiet, it snows; es friert, it freezes; es thauet, it thaws; es hagelt, it hails; es reifet, there is a hoar-frost. And these: es hungert mich, or mich hungert, I am hungry; es durstet mich, or mich durstet, I am thirsty; es schläfert mich, or mich schläfert, I am sleepy.

Those impersonal verbs, which have a pronoun after them, may be said to participate in the nature of reflective verbs: as, es dünkt mich, es geziemet sich. And, on the other hand, some of the reflectives have occasionnally the impersonal form: for instance, es freuet mich, it pleases me, I am glad, from sich freuen; es grämt mich, it grieves me, from sich grämen; es graut mich, I am afraid, from sich grauen. When the reflective term is put before the verb, the pronoun es is, in many words, omitted: as, mich graut, mich däucht.

SECTION VII.

VERBS COMPOUND.

THIS division comprehends chiefly verbs, that are composed with prepositions, and such invariable words, as in grammar, are styled particles. The other combinations, for example, those with a verb, and a noun, require little notice.

A Verb Compound is either *Separable* or *Inseparable*: that is to say, the particle, or preposition, at the beginning, may either be separated from the verb, or may not.

A. *Separable*, are those composed with

ab,	as, ablegen, to lay down,	from legen, to lay.
an,	— anfangen, to begin,	— fangen, to catch.
anheim,	— anheimstellen, to refer to,	— stellen, to place,
auf,	— aufhören, to cease,	— hören, to hear.
aus,	— auslassen, to leave out,	— lassen, to leave.
bey,	— beystehen, to assist,	— stehen, to stand.
dar,	— darbringen, to offer, to present,	— bringen, to bring.
dabey,	— dabeystehen, to stand by,	— stehen, to stand.
davon,	— davonlaufen, to run off,	— laufen, to run.
ein,	— einkaufen, to buy in,	— kaufen, to buy.
fort,	— fortfahren, to continue,	— fahren, to move along.

heim,	as, heimkehren, to return home,	from kehren, to turn,
her,	— heribingen, to bring along,	— bringen, to bring.
herab,	— herabsetzen, to lower,	— setzen, to set.
heran,	— heranführen, to bring on,	— führen, to lead.
heraus,	— herausholen, to fetch out,	— holen, to fetch.
herbey,	— herbeyrufen, to call towards you,	— rufen, to call.
herein,	— hereinbringen, to bring in,	— gbringen, to bring.
hervor,	— hervorbringen, to produce,	— bringen, to bring.
hin,	— hingehen, to go along,	— gehen, to go.
hinab,	— hinablassen, to let down	— lassen, to let.
hinan,	— hinangießen, to pour to,	— gießen, to pour.
hinaus,	— hinauswerfen, to fling out,	— werfen, to fling.
hinüber,	—hinübertragen, to carry over,	— tragen, to carry.
hinunter,	—hinunterspringen, to leap down,	— springen, to leap.
hinzu,	— hinzueilen, to hasten to a place,	— eilen, to hasten
mit,	— mitnehmen, to take with you; also to censure,	— nehmen, to take.
nach,	— nachfolgen, to follow after, to succeed,	— folgen, to follow.
nieder,	—niederstoßen, to strike down.	— stoßen, to push, to strike.

ob,	as, obliegen, to be incumbent on,	from liegen, to lie.
vor,	— vorgeben, to pretend,	— geben, to give.
voran,	— vorangehen, to go before,	— gehen, to go.
voraus,	— vorausſetzen, to suppose,	— ſetzen, to put.
vorüber,	— vorüberfahren, to pass by,	— fahren, to move.
überein,	— übereinkommen, to agree,	— kommen, to come.
weg,	— wegbleiben, to stay away,	— bleiben, to stay.
wieder,*	— wiederkommen, to come, again,	— kommen, to come.
zu,	— zureden, to persuade,	— reden, to talk.
zurück,	— zurückkehren, to return,	— kehren, to turn.
zuſammen,	— zuſammenſetzen, to put together, to compose, to construct,	— ſetzen, to put.

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* In wiederholen, to repeat, from holen, to fetch, it is inseparable; which may lead to the supposition, that the verb should be written, widerholen: for the particle wider is inseparable. But the circumstance may be accounted for by supposing, that the same particle is used as separable and inseparable, according to a difference of signification, attributed to the verb, with which it is joined.

Rules.

I. The separation takes place.

1. In the imperative mood: as, fange (du) an, begin (thou); fange er an, let him begin; fanget (ihr) an, begin (you): fangen sie an, let them begin. Thus: Höre auf, cease, &c.

2. In the indicative, and subjunctive, when the verb is not, by the influence of a pronoun, or a conjunction, removed to the end of a sentence. For instance: Ich fahre fort, I continue; du fährst fort, thou continuest; er fährt fort, he continues; wir fahren fort, we continue; ihr fahret fort, you continue; sie fahren fort, they continue.

3. When the infinitive has the preposition zu before it,* that preposition is placed between the compounding particle, and the verb: as, anzufangen, aufzuhören, fortzufahren.

4. The augment ge, in the preterite participle, is inserted between the particle, and the verb: as, angefangen, aufgehört, fortgefahren.

II. The particle, separated from the verb, is put

1. In the infinitive, and preterite participle, before the verb, as appears from the examples adduced.

2. In the other instances, after the verb; and not only after the verb, from which it has been disjoined

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* See Part II, Chap. 1. Sect. 2.

but also after the subject nominative, if that should happen to stand after the verb*: as, So fange ich an, thus do I begin; nun hört, der Lärm auf, now the noise ceases: and, generally, after the cases governed by the verb. For example: Ich fange das Buch an, I begin the book, verb anfangen; nehmen Sie mir die Last ab, take from me the burden, verb abnehmen; wir theilten, unsern Freunden die Nachricht mit, we communicated the information to our friends, verb mittheilen. Frequently also after the relative members of a sentence: as, Ich stellte die Sache meinem Bruder und zwey Männern, welche meine Freunde waren, anheim, I referred the matter to my brother, and to two men who were my friends; verb anheimstellen. Indeed, the particle is hardly ever found before the cases, governed by the verb, except it were from the necessity of rhyme, or metre; and, even then, it is not justifiable, if the cases be mere pronouns: as, Ich fange es an, I begin it; where you could not say, ich fange an es. Or, nehmen Sie mir es ab, take it from me, which could not possibly be expressed, by nehmen Sie ab es mir.—Sometimes, the particle is placed after the infinitive, governed by the compound verb: as, Er fängt zu lesen an, he begins to read, for er fängt an zu lesen.

B. *Compound Verbs Inseparable*, those beginning with

be,	as, beweisen, to prove	from weisen, to show.
emp,	— empfangen, to receive,	— fangen, to take.

* See Part II, Chap 4, Sect. 1, 3, 4.

ent,	as, entehren, to disho-nour,	from ehren, to honour
er,	— erhalten, to preserve,	— halten, to hold.
ge,	— gebrauchen, to make use of,	— brauchen, to use.
hinter	— hintergehen, to deceive,	— gehen, to go.
miß,	— mißfallen, to displease.	— fallen, to fall.
ver,	— verzehren, to consume,	— zehren, to waste.
verab,	— verabscheuen, to detest,	— scheuen, to shun.
vernach,	— vernachlässigen, to neglect,	— lassen, to leave.
verun,	— verunreinigen, to soil,	— reinigen, to clean.
wider,	— widerrathen, to dissuade,	— rathen, to advise.
zer,	— zerstören, to destroy,	— stören, to stir.

Rule.

These verbs never admit a separation of the prefix; nor receive the augment ge, in the preterite participle, except a few compounded with miß, which, though inseparable, take the syllable ge in the said participle. Such are those of an active, and transitive signification: as, mißbilligen, to disapprove, preterite participle, gemißbilliget, mißbrauchen, to abuse, preterite participle, gemißbraucht; mißdeuten, to misinterpret, preterite participle, gemißdeutet; mißhandeln, to ill treat, preterite parti-

ciple, gemißhandelt. Others, composed with miß, especially neuters, refuse the augment, in the preterite participle: as, Mißfallen, to displease, preterite participle, mißfallen, not gemißfallen; mißglücken, to turn out ill, to fail, preterite participle, mißglückt; mißlingen, to fail, preterite participle, mißlungen; mißrathen, not to prosper, preterite participle, mißrathen. Sometimes the augment ge, in the preterite participle, and the preposition zu, in the infinitive, are inserted between the particle, and the verb: as, mißgeboten, mißzubieten, from mißbieten; mißgeartet, mißzuarten, from mißarten, to degenerate. But this seems to be an unnecessary departure from the rule.

C. *Separable and Inseparable*, are verbs compounded with the following prepositions:

durch, as, durchbrechen to break through, separable and inseparable; preterite participle, durchgebrochen, and durchbrochen, from brechen, to break.

über, as, übersetzen, to get over, to leap over, separable; preterite participle, übergesetzt; and übersetzen, to translate, inseparable; preterite participle, übersetzt—both from setzen, to put.

um, as, umlaufen, to run round, separable and inseparable; preterite participle, umgelaufen, and umlaufen, from laufen, to run.

unter, as, untergehen, to go down, to perish, separable; preterite participle, untergegangen, from gehen, to go: unternehmen, to undertake, inseparable; pret. part. unternommen, from nehmen, to take.

Rules.

1. Those verbs, when separable, have a neutral signification, without a case following: as, Er bricht durch, he breaks through: er ist durchgebrochen, he has broken through. When inseparable, they are transitives, and govern the accusative case: as, Die Sonne durchbricht die Wolken, the sun breaks through the clouds. Add the following example: Das Rad läuft um, the wheel runs round, separable; der Hund umläuft das Feld, the dog runs round the field, inseparable. Die Pferde setzen über, the horses leap over, separable: der Knabe übersetzt den Homer, the boy translates Homer, inseparable. Die Sonne geht unter, the sun sets, separable; ich unternehme das Werk, I undertake the work, inseparable. Such is the rule; but a deviation from it occurs in some verbs, composed with durch, and um. For example: durchbrechen, to break in pieces; umstoßen, to knock down, to overset, to overturn; umwerfen, to throw down, to overturn; umstürzen, to overthrow; umdrehen, to turn about, to twist about; umbringen, to kill: are separable, though they are used as verbs transitive. This must be considered either as a mere exception, or may be explained, as I have done in another place*, by saying, that the rule is only applicable, when the component particle has its first, or original, signification. When that signification is altered, the verbs, which were inseparable, become separable. The original signification of durch is *through*,

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* See Exercises, p. 72.

but in that example it means *asunder:* um denotes circular motion, but in the instances above, the idea of inversion and change, or some other notion, seems to prevail.

II. In these compounds, the accent varies: for, when they are used as separables, it is laid upon the prepositions, as, durchbrechen; when they are inseparable, the preposition is void of accent, as, durchbrechen. Thus um=laufen, separable.—umlaufen, inseparable; übersetzen, separable—übersetzen, inseparable—untergehen, separable —unternehmen, inseparable.

D. Some verbs are doubly compounded, with particles separable, and inseparable: for example, Auferziehen, to bring up, to educate; anvertrauen, to entrust; verab=scheuen, to detest. The particles auf and an, are to be found among the separables; er and ver, are inseparable. These verbs, though separable, after one of the particles, do not take the syllable ge, in the preterite participle: as, auferzogen, anvertraut, verabscheut.

E. Of those, which are composed with nouns, it is to be observed, that some are *separable*, as, fehlschlagen, to miscarry; freysprechen, to acquit; gleichkommen, to equal; losreißen, to tear loose: and some *inseparable*. Several of the latter have the augment ge, in the preterite participle, like simple verbs. For example: frohlocken, to exult; handhaben, to handle; frühstücken, to breakfast; liebäugeln, to exchange fond looks: which make the preterite participles, gefrohlockt, gehandhabt, ge=frühstückt, geliebäugelt. Those with voll, full, are insepa-

rable, and reject the augment: as, vollziehen, to execute, pret. part. vollzogen.

Concerning the Signification of Compound Verbs.

In reviewing those which are separable, few difficulties occur. The prefixes, for the most part, may be rendered intelligible by translation. Thus, ab, signifies off; an, on; auf, up, or upon; aus, out of; bey, by; dar, there; ein, in, or into; fort, forth, or forward; gleich, like; heim, home; mit, with; nach, after; nieder, down; ob, on, upon; vor, before; weg, away; wieder, again. Only hin, and her, require an explanation. They are both particles of locality. Hin, expresses motion proceeding from the person, who is speaking, to another point; her, denotes motion from any place, towards that person. Thus, er geht hin, he goes along, means, he goes from the point, in which the subjective person is, to some other point; and er kömmt her, signifies, he comes from any place towards the person. Therefore, when I bid any one to proceed from me, it will be, gehen Sie hin; and when I desire him to come towards me, kommen Sie her. But more is to be said of the compounds inseparable. The nature, and meaning of their prefixes, are complicated, and call for some illustration.

Be, supposed to be related, to the preposition bey*, serves

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* A curious, or rather whimsical, etymology of this particle is offered, by an anonymous writer, in the Monthly Magazine, for July 1801, p. 504.—It exists in

1. To transform verbs neuter into transitives. For example: Folgen, to follow, is a neuter, construed with the dative case: befolgen, to follow, in a metaphorical sense, to obey, a verb transitive, with the accusative;—arbeiten, to work, to labour, neuter; bearbeiten, to bestow labour upon a thing, to elaborate, transitive;—lachen, to laugh, neuter; belachen, to laugh at, transitive;—steigen, to ascend, or descend, neuter; besteigen, to ascend a thing, to mount upon, transitive, as, den Thron besteigen, to ascend the throne;—antworten, to answer, to make answer, neuter; beantworten, to answer, transitive, as, einen Brief beantworten, to answer a letter;—zweifeln, to doubt, becomes bezweifeln. Thus, in English, *to rhyme*, is a verb neuter, *to berhyme*, a transitive.

2. In composition with verbs transitive, it has the effect of exchanging the case, governed by the simple verb, for one, depending upon the preposition mit, with. For example: Blumen auf den Weg streuen, to strew flowers on the way; here Blumen is the accusative case, governed by the verb streuen, and den Weg is governed by the preposition auf. Now, taking the compound bestreuen; it will be, den Weg mit Blumen bestreuen; to strew the way with flowers: here the cases are changed, and den Weg is governed by the verb; the former object ac-

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all Teutonick languages; even in the English, as is proved by the verbs *to bedeck, bespringle, begnaw, begird*, and others.

cusative in its turn, is combined with the preposition mit. Figuren auf das Papier mahlen, to paint figures on the paper; Figuren is the object accusative, governed by the simple verb mahlen. Making the latter a compound with be, the phrase will then be: das Papier mit Figuren bemahlen, to paint the paper with figures; das Papier is become the object accusative, and Figuren is joined with the preposition mit.

3. Any part of speech may, by means of the prefix be, receive the character of a verb: as, Beflügen, to furnish with wings, from der Flügel, the wing, a substantive; bereichern, to enrich, from reich, rich, an adjective.* The German grammar admits this operation with considerable freedom, though not every combination, which may be formed in that manner, can be regarded as classical. For instance: Er schreit juchhey! he cries huzza—ich will ihn bejuchheyen, I will huzza him; that means, I will make him change his note, I will punish him, or something like it. Here an interjection is transformed into a verb. Er nennt sich Herr Mascow, he calls himself Mr. Maskow—ich will ihn bemascowen, I will maskow him, *i. e.* I will teach him how to use that name, I will make him know what he is doing, or a similar idea. Here a verb is made of a proper name, by the aid of the particle be. These expressions are, in fact, a sort of jargon, or cant language: yet they show the nature of that particle.

4. In some instances, the signification of the simple

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* Thus in English, *to befriend, to beguile, to behead, to bedew,* from *friend, guile, head, dew.*

verbs does not seem to be altered, by the composition with be: as, fördern and befördern, to further, to forward; fürchten and befürchten, to fear. The simples as well as the compounds, are employed as transitives. However, if the use of such verbs be strictly enquired into, a difference may be discovered. For example: Befördern, means to promote a person to a higher rank: in which sense the simple, fördern, rarely, or never, occurs: and befürchten, to fear, is not applied to persons, as objects, but only to things, as Ich befürchte diesen Umstand, I fear this circumstance; whereas fürchten is capable of both significations. Moreover, the latter seems to denote a stronger fear, and befürchten merely apprehension, or doubt.

Ent signifies

1. Privation: as, Entehren, to deprive of honour, to dishonour, from ehren; enterben, to disinherit, from erben; entbinden, to free from a tie, hence to act as a midwife, Fr. *accoucher*, from binden; entfesseln, to free from fetters, to set at liberty, from fesseln; entvölkern, to deprive of population, to depopulate, from das Volk, the people; entwaffnen, to disarm, from waffnen. It is, in this signification, the reverse of Be.

2. Removal or motion, from a place: as, Entfliehen, to fly, to escape, from fliehen; entführen, to carry off, from führen; entziehen to withdraw, to take away, from ziehen. Sometimes, it seems to express approach, or motion, towards a certain object: as in entbieten, to bid, to send word to; entsprechen, to answer to, to correspond with, to suit with. Thus in the adverb entgegen, towards, encountering. The notion of approach implies the proceeding

from a certain place towards another, so that the idea of removal from a place is, in some manner, connected with it.

3. It notes origin, and beginning: as, Entspringen, to spring forth, to arise, from springen; entstehen, to arise, to be produced, from stehen; entzünden, to inflame, to set on fire, from zünden; entbrennen, metaphorically, to catch fire.

The first signification is to be considered as the radical one, from which the other two are derived. For removal is a species of privation, which the place sustains, whence the removal is made: and origin and beginning may be brought under the same head, so far as that which arises and begins to appear, withdraws, or disengages itself from that wherein it was before contained, or concealed, and thus causes a sort of privation to the same.

The verbs with ent, that signify a removal, have the place, or person, from which the motion is made, in the dative case.

Emp

Is considered as a mere alteration of ent, before the letter f. But it might also be said that it was a corruption of ein, in. For it seems, in some instances, to answer the sense, which may be attributed to ein: as, in empfangen, to receive, which originally might be einfangen; empfinden, to perceive, to feel, einfinden. In other verbs, it does not suit so well: for example, in empfehlen, to recommend; where the first signification of ent may seem to be applicable, if we suppose the primitive meaning of entfehlen (now empfehlen) to be, to strip of faults, to make faultless, to represent as faultless.

Er denotes

1. The obtaining of an object, in consequence of action, or exertion: as, Erfechten, to obtain by fighting—die Engländer haben einen Sieg erfochten, the English, by fighting, have gained a victory. Thus, erreiten, to obtain by riding; ertanzen, to obtain by dancing.

2. A motion upwards: as, Erheben, to raise up; errichten, to erect.

3. The act of opening: as, Eröffnen, to open; erbrechen, to break open.

4. The act of inventing, and producing to light: as, Erdenken, to find out by meditation, to invent; erfinden, to invent; ersinnen, to invent by reflection.

5. The placing, or being placed, or getting, into a certain state, or condition: as, Erwärmen, to warm; erröthen, to grow red, to blush; erschrecken, to terrify, and to be terrified.

Ge.

The power of this prefix, whatever it primarily might be, is, at present, not easy to be distinguished. It may, perhaps, have consisted in an intention of signification. But now most of the verbs, composed with this particle, seem to be the same in meaning as the simples: for example, Brauchen, and gebrauchen, to use: denken, and gedenken, to think—though it may happen, that some particular signification is more usual, in the simple verb than in the compound, and again another more common, with the compound than the simple. For instance, brauchen frequently denotes, to want, to stand in need of, to have

occasion for; but gebrauchen is scarcely ever employed in that sense. Thus gedenken, with the genitive case, means to remember, to think of; as, Gedenke meiner, remember me, think of me; in which construction denken never occurs.—This is the same particle, which is prefixed to the preterite participle, where it evidently is applied to indicate the past action of the verb.—In the districts of the Upper German dialect, it is, here and there, by the common people, put before every infinitive: as, Geloben, for loben, to praise; gelieben, for lieben, to love.

Ver implies

1. The idea, *away;* as, Vertreiben, to drive away, from treiben, to drive; verjagen, to chase away, from jagen; verschenken, to give away, from schenken.* Hence it signifies

2. A loss†: as, Verlieren, to lose; verspielen, to lose at play: and

3. Destruction, or consumption: as, Verblühen, to fade; verwelken, to wither; verschmachten, to be famished, to die of hunger; verbluten, to bleed to death. It denotes

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* Even in the verb, versprechen, to promise, it is thus to be explained. Sprechen, to speak, combined with ver, literally signifies to *speak away*, i. e. to part with, by your speech; to give up your future independence of acting, respecting any particular thing, by a declaration made to that purpose.

† This is answered by the adverb *away*, in the English language; as in these examples, *to trifle away one's time, to drink away one's senses.*

4. Prohibition: as, Verbieten, to forbid; verhindern, to hinder; verwehren, to prohibit; verbitten, to refuse, to decline; versagen, to deny, to refuse.

5 Change, or transmutation: as, Verrücken, to move a thing out of its place: verschieben, to put off; versetzen, to transpose; verpflanzen, to transplant; verändern, to change; verwechseln, to confound.

6. It signifies doing wrong, deviating from what is just, and proper: as Verführen, to seduce; verleiten, to misguide; versalzen, to spoil by adding too much salt; sich verrechnen, to misreckon; sich verschreiben, to commit an errour in writing: sich versprechen, to make a mistake in speaking; vergessen, to forget; sich verstellen, to dissemble.

7. Shutting up, or closing: as Verschließen, to lock up; verstopfen, to stop up: vermauern, to stop by means of a wall, to wall up; versigeln, to seal up; verpichen, to close, or stop, with pitch; vernageln, to nail up, to spike.

8. It enforces, and strengthens, the signification of verbs: as, Verehren, to honour, from ehren; verspotten, to mock; verlachen, to laugh at; verleihen, to grant.

9. It involves the idea of a close union, and connexion: as, Verflechten, to entwine, to implicate; verbinden, to connect; verbrüdern, to join by a brotherly tie; verschwägern, to unite by intermarriage; verschwören, to conspire. And lastly,

10. It expresses the placing, or getting (*i. e.* being placed), into a certain state, or condition: as, Verbessern,

to better, to make better; verdunkeln, to darken, to obscure; veredeln, to ennoble, to improve; vergöttern, to deify; veralten, to grow obsolete, to fall into disuse; verarmen, to fall into poverty.

Zer,

notes separation of parts, dispersion, destruction: as, Zertreten, to tread in pieces, to crush; zerreiben, to rub to atoms; zerstreuen, to scatter, to disperse; zerstören, to destroy.

Miß (or mis), answering to the English *mis*.

1. Marks an action, done, or carried on, in a wrong manner: as, Mißbrauchen, to abuse, from brauchen, to use; mißhandeln, to ill treat, from handeln, or behandeln, to deal with; mißdeuten, to misinterpret, from deuten, to interpret; mißverstehen, to misunderstand, from verstehen.

2. It has a negative power: as, Mißfallen, to displease, from gefallen, to please; mißbilligen, to disapprove, from billigen, to approve.—Those significations are also to be seen in union with nouns: as das Mißverständniß, the misunderstanding; der Mißbrauch, the abuse; das Mißtrauen, suspicion; mißfällig, unpleasing, offensive; mißtrauisch, suspicious.

Hinter, signifies

1. Behind: as, Hinterlassen, to leave behind.

2. It is used in a metaphorical sense: as, Hinterbringen, to give secret intelligence; hintergehen, to deceive; hintertreiben, to prevent. And in nouns: as, die Hinterlist, the cunning; hinterlistig, crafty.

Unter corresponds with

1. The English *under*, Lat. *sub:* as, Unternehmen, to undertake.

2. The Latin *inter*, and *ob:* as, Unterbrechen, to interrupt; unterlassen, to omit.

Um,

in the verbs umbringen, to put to death, to murder; and umkommen, to perish, needs an explanation, though it is hardly here in its proper place, as it is separable in those verbs. It first signifies *about;* then denotes *change;* after that *loss*, in which last sense, it is applied to those verbs. Jemanden umbringen, to put a person to death, is an elliptical expression for, jemanden um das Leben bringen, to cause somebody to lose his life. In a similar way, umkommen, is to be interpreted.

The particle Un, like the English *un*, is a privative, but occurs only in combination with nouns, and preterite participles.

Erz, answering to *arch*, before nouns, denotes the chief, or first in a class.

CHAPTER V.

ON THE PARTICIPLE.

The participle, being deduced from the verb, and sharing its power and signification, is, in the English language, not improperly, considered as a part of the same. Here a particular chapter is assigned to it, as a distinct subject of grammar: because there is something peculiar in its use, which seems to require, that it should be treated of separately. It seems to form a connecting link between the noun and the verb; but it neither entirely belongs to the one, nor to the other.

The Germans have two participles, the present, and the preterite: and we shall speak, in

SECTION I.

OF THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

It is made of the infinitive mood, by addition of the letter *d*: as, from Loben, to praise, part. lobend; from Lachen, to laugh, part. lachend, laughing.

This participle has the signification of the verb, from which it is derived; and may govern the same case, as the verb. With these qualifications it unites the nature of an adjective. In fact, it is never used otherwise than in connexion with some substantive, or with the same relation to it, that a common adjective generally bears.

For example: der lachende Frühling, the smiling spring; der tanzende Knabe, the dancing boy; das laufende Jahr, the running (or current) year.

It is, like any other adjective, capable of the four forms: as, the second form, Erquickender Wein, refreshing wine; stärkende Speise, strengthening food; kühlendes Getränke, cooling drink. Fourth form: Ein liebender Vater, a loving father; eine trauernde Schwester, a mourning sister; ein weinendes Kind, a weeping child. Examples of the first and third forms, have been above given.

The first, or adverbial, form is never put after any verb; especially, not after the second auxiliary, seyn, to be. Here the participle not only deserts the function of the adjective: but also leaves us destitute of a verbal combination, much in practice with the English. For, with regard to the adjective, it is common, in German, to place it adverbially after verbs: for instance, dieß ist schön, this is beautiful; jenes ist häßlich, that is ugly.* And by means of the present participle, joined to the second auxiliary, the English produce what is termed *the definite*, or *determined, time*: as, "I am writing; he is reading; we are looking; he has been walking; they will be going."† But the German participle cannot be thus employed, except where, from its signification, it is quite regarded as an adjective: Es ist reitzend, it is charming; diese Beleidigung ist kränkend, this insult is mortifying; ihre Sitten waren sehr einnehmend, her man-

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* See p. 181.

† See p. 279.

ners were very captivating; die Noth ist dringend, the necessity is pressing; die Last ist drückend, the burden is oppressive.

As an adjective, it may be said to admit the degrees of comparison, by means of additional endings. However, these degrees are not equally in use, with all participles. Indeed, the comparative only occurs of such, as have more the signification of adjectives, than of the verbs, from which they are taken. At least, they are become so current, as adjectives, that, in common practice, they are hardly looked upon as parts of a verb. Of that description are, for example, Reitzend (from reitzen, to charm); charming, pleasing, comparative, reitzender, more charming; einnehmend, captivating, agreeable, comp. einnehmender; fließend, flowing, fluent, comp. fließender; dringend, pressing, urgent, comp. dringender; drückend, oppressive, heavy, comp. drückender. Now these, and others of the same kind suffer the comparative degree in the first; but scarcely in any other form. Other participles are not to be met with, in the comparative degree, at all. If with them a comparison is to be made, it must be done through the medium of the word mehr, more.—The superlative degree, may be applied to those participles, which allow the comparative, as, der reitzendste, der fließendste, but it cannot be transferred to the others.

Like an adjective, the participle may *elliptically* (see p. 197.) be turned into a substantive: as, der Lesende, he that reads, or is reading; der Schreibende, he that writes; die Lachende, she who is laughing.

The German participle has not enough of the nature

of the verb, to serve for the purpose of constituting a member of a sentence: which power is principally assigned to it, in other languages. In English, you may, for example, say with propriety, "Seeing the great number of prisoners, I concluded, that the action had terminated in our favour." This sentence consists of two members: *first*, I saw the prisoners: *second*, I concluded. The first member is expressed by the participle. So the following: "Hearing the noise of the cannon, he started up"—for, he heard the noise of the cannon, and started up—In German, the participle cannot perform this office: the members of a sentence are constructed in some other way, and generally by means of conjunction: as, "I saw the great number of prisoners, *and* concluded;" or, "*when (as)* I saw the number of prisoners, I concluded;"—"*when*, he heard the noise of the cannon, he started up;" or *as soon as* he heard the noise of the cannon, he started up." Much less would the language bear the compound participle, with the auxiliaries: as, "having loved," or "having been loved." It would, for instance, be a great errour, to translate, by the participle, the following sentence: "Having received your letter, I immediately desired my servant to proceed"—Habend erhalten Ihren Brief, &c. The structure must be changed, in this, or a similar manner: "I received your letter, *and* immediately desired," &c.—or, "*When, (as soon as)* I had received your letter, I immediately desired my servant," &c. The conjunction, indem, while, was formerly much used for resolving the participial construction of other

tongues, into the German idiom. But it occurs, at present, less frequently.

Though that is the most proper use of the participle, in other languages, the German does not acknowledge it: unless the following mode of employing the participle be considered, as connected with the former. Namely, it sometimes expresses the manner of acting, being, or suffering and is then adverbially joined to a verb. For example: Weinend sprach er zu mir, *weeping* he said to me: er setzte sich schweigend nieder, he sat down, *preserving* silence; sie standen trauernd bey dem Grabe, they stood *mourning* near the tomb.

The poets occasionally exceed the limits prescribed by common usage; and give a greater latitude to the verbal capacity of the participle. This is, in fact, an affectation of foreign manners. Allowance is to be made for poetical licence; and certain privileges are to be granted to the muse, to which ordinary language must not aspire. Yet this liberty ought not to be too far extended; nor is it to be supposed, that what most deviates from the rules of prosaick accuracy, is always most poetical. It will not be amiss to mention a few instances, from Voss's translation of Homer. This is a good version of that great poet: but the close imitation of the original, which it strives after, frequently gives it the character of pedantry. Among its peculiarities is the use of the present participle, which, though it corresponds with the Greek, is not countenanced by the genius and spirit of the German language. For example:

Iliad, Book I.

V. 51. Doch nun gegen sie selbst das herbe Geschoß hinwendend,—Traf er—*Turning* the bitter arrows against them, he inflicted wounds.

V. 130. Gegen ihn rief antwortend der Völkerfürst Agamemnon—Agamemnon *answering* called to him.

V. 147. Ha! du in Unverschämtheit gehüllteter, sinnend auf Vortheil—Ah! thou, clad in impudence, *thinking* of gain.

V. 290. Ihm in die Red' einfallend begann der edle Achilleus—*Interrupting him*, the noble Achilles began.

V. 325. Hin mit mehren kommend—*Coming* with more people.

V. 345. Jener sprachs, und Patroklus, dem lieben Freunde gehorchend,—Führt aus dem Zelt—He spoke it, and Patroclus, *obeying* his dear friend, led her forth from the tent.

V. 420. Du indeß an des Meers schnellwandelnden Schiffen dich setzend,—Zürne dem Danaervolk—*Seating thyself* near the ships, indulge thy spleen against the Grecians.

Book IX.

V. 57. Hoch das Wort anstaunend.—Greatly *admiring* the speech.

V. 86. In den Händen die ragenden Speere bewegend—*Brandishing* in their hands the lofty spears.

V. 194. Verlassend den Sitz wo er ruhte—*Leaving* his seat.

V. 196. Beid' an der Hand anfassend—*Seizing* them both by the hand.

It must, however, be observed, that even in these examples, the participle expresses more a manner of acting, than it aims at forming a member of the sentence. The most essential quality, which the present participle retains of the verb, is, that it may govern a case. And this is perfectly agreeable to the nature of the language, provided a sentence is not clogged by long, or many, words of that description. For instance: Die alles belebende Sonne, the sun, which animates every thing; der Früchte bringende Sommer, the summer, which produces fruit; die mir bevorstehende Gefahr, the danger hanging over me; das uns verfolgende Geschick, the fate persecuting us.—Let it be noticed, that the cases governed are placed before the participle. Sometimes, the case and participle are drawn together and written as one word: for instance, Ein ehrliebendes Gemüth, instead of, ein Ehre liebendes Gemüth, a mind that loves honour; der wachhabende Officier, for, der Wache habende Officier, the officer upon guard; die gesetzgebende Gewalt, for, die Gesetze gebende Gewalt, the legislative authority; die kriegführenden Mächte, for, Krieg führenden, the belligerent powers.

From analogy to the foregoing, the participles, of reflective verbs might likewise be admitted: as, der sich freuende Vater, the father, who rejoices; die sich grämende Mutter, the mother, who chagrines, or frets, herself. Yet they are seldom made use of. Of impersonal verbs, as such, no present participle can exist.

To answer the Latin participle in *dus*, which is of a gerundive signification, and in English expressed by the preterite participle, with *to be*, before it, the Germans have formed a similar participle from their present, by

means of the preposition, zu, to. For example: Das hoch zu schätzende Verdienst, merit to be highly esteemed; die zu tadelnde Strenge, severity which is to blamed; eine schwer zu behauptende Besitzung, a possession to be maintained with difficulty. Thus Hochzuehrender Herr, honourable Sir, (who is greatly to be honoured).—This use of the participle is springing from the infinite, we connected with that preposition. For the Germans (like some other nations) employ the infinitive of the active voice, with zu, where the English, more properly, resort to the passive: as, dieß ist zu loben, this is to be praised (literally, to praise); das ist zu tadeln, that is to be blamed (lit. to blame).

The present participle, may, in English, be converted into a substantive, by a preceding article, as, *the writing, the reading*. This cannot be done in German, where the infinitive only serves for that purpose: as, das Schreiben, das Lesen.

The Germans employ, in many instances, the infinitive where the English use the participle: as, da er seine Jungen schmachten sah, when he saw his young ones *starve*, i. e. starving.

SECTION II.

THE PRETERITE PARTICIPLE.

Its formation is sufficiently known from the fourth chapter. It either ends in *t*, *(et)*, or *n (en)*; and has, for the most part, the augment *ge* before it: as, gelobt, gesprochen. That augment is only refused by verbs com-

pound inseparable, and by a few others, whose infinitive is in *ieren*, or *iren*: as, regiert, lamentiert, hasiert, spatziert.

The function of the preterite participle is twofold: *first*, when combined with the auxiliary verbs, it makes some of the compound tenses of conjugation; and *secondly*, as an adjective, it is joined to substantives. In the latter capacity, it is more freely used by the Germans, than by the English. The former employ, without difference, any preterite participle as an adjective, and in all the four forms. For example: second f. Geliebter Sohn, loved son; third f. die gepriesene Tugend, the praised virtue; fourth f. ein verachtetes Geschöpf, a despised creature.

The nature of an adjective is further manifested in the degrees of comparison, of which this participle is susceptible; though the use of those degrees is limited, as has been stated in another place.*

Some participles are preserved, in the quality of adjectives, the verbs of which are become obsolete. Such are, Behaftet, afflicted with; bescheiden, modest; gewogen, friendly, favouring; geschickt, clever; geschlacht, neat, proper; gewohnt, accustomed. Others, though reducible to existing verbs, are considered as mere adjectives, in point of signification. Of this kind are, Berühmt, renowned; gelehrt, learned; vergnügt, pleased, gay, happy; verwandt, related by kindred; vollkommen, perfect. There is, indeed, so strong a relation between the nature of the pre-

* See p. 208.

terite participle, and that of the noun, that, on the other hand, adjectives are formed in the participial shape, though not derived from any verb: for instance, Gesittet, good mannered, from die Sitten, manners, a noun substantive; beherzt, courageous, from das Herz, the heart; bejahrt, advanced in years, old, and überjahrt, superannuated, from das Jahr, the year; bemittelt, wealthy, from die Mittel, plur. wealth; bemoost, covered with moss, from das Moos, the moss; beschilft, covered with reeds, from das Schilf, the reed.—From simple verbs, compound participles are made, which likewise bear the signification of adjective nouns. This is proved by the following examples; Bekannt, known, acquainted, from kennen, to know; beredt, eloquent, from reden to speak; beschaffen, circumstanced, from schaffen, to cause to exist; bewandert, conversant in a thing, from wandern, to wander; abgeneigt, disinclined, favourable, from neigen, to incline; versoffen, given to drinking, from saufen, to drink intemperately; verschwiegen, habituated to secrecy, faithful to a secret, from schweigen, to be silent.

The preterite participle, in English, may be put together with the present participle of an auxiliary verb: as, "having loved, being loved, having been loved;" the German language does not license this connection, as has been observed in the first section of the present chapter.

The signification of the preterite participle is either passive, or denotes a certain state, or quality. But some of these participles, joined with the verb Kommen, and expressing the manner of coming, or approaching, seem to have an active power: as, Er kömmt geritten, he comes

(lit. ridden) riding, or on horseback, from reiten; er kömmt gelaufen, he comes running, from laufen; er kömmt gefahren, he comes driving *i. e.* in a carriage, from fahren; er kömmt geflogen, he comes flying, *i. e.* upon wings, from fliegen; er kömmt gelacht, he comes laughing.*

The syllable un, being put before any participle, reverses the signification, or makes it negative. For instance: Ungeliebt, not loved; ungestraft, unpunished; ungerächt, unavenged.

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* Something similar, though not exactly the same, is to be found in other Teutonick languages, for example, in the Swedish, *komma tågandes*, to approach slowly, or solemnly. See Möller's Swedish Dictionary, word *tåga*. In German, they are chiefly participles from verbs of motion, which are thus associated with kommen; but the last example, above adduced, er kömmt gelacht, which is taken from Lessing's comedy, the Jews (die Juden), scene 19th, shows that this construction may also be applied to other verbs.

CHAPTER VI.

ON THE ADVERB.

From general grammar it is known, that adverbs are words which, in speech, are added to other words, to express a certain modification, that is to say, a mode of action, or existence. Thus there are adverbs denoting manner, order, time, place, motion, quantity, quality, relation, comparison, doubt, affirmation, negation, demonstration, interrogation. It would be needless to enter into a detail of all these classes: but a few observations suggest themselves, which are of practical utility.

Adverbs are not variable, except that some admit the degrees of comparison, as, in English, *soon*, comp. *sooner*, sup. *soonest*. In German, the adverbs of quality are particularly subject to the degrees of comparison; as, Wohl, besser, am besten, well, better, best; schön, finely; schöner, more finely; am schönsten, most finely.

Adverbs of quality abound in the German language: for every adjective furnishes such an adverb. The first form of adjectives, thence called the adverbial, may, without limitation, be thus employed. For this reason, it has been maintained, by some grammarians, that adjectives are nothing else than adverbs, provided with

declinable terminations, and adapted to substantives. But this seems a question, in itself of little importance.*

To form an adverb of quality, from an adjective, requires, in English, the addition of the syllable *ly*; as, from *quiet, quietly*; from *fine, finely*; *nice, nicely*. The German adjective has the means of yielding an adverb out of its own forms, quite ready for use, without a similar process. It is true, that in some instances the ending lich, appears to answer to the English *ly*: as Kürzlich, not along ago; erstlich, in the first place; schwerlich, hardly, scarcely; but that ending is not exclusively adverbial. It is found in several adjectives: as, männlich, manly; fürstlich, princely; königlich, royal, or kingly; glücklich, lucky; gefährlich, dangerous.

Some words become adverbs, by means of an additional *s*: for example, Bereits, already, from bereit, ready; stets, constantly, from stet, constant; eilends, hastily; from eilend, partic. hasting, besonders, particularly, from besonder, particular; anders, otherwise, from ander, other; rechts, to the right hand, from recht, right; links, to the left, from link, left. Add the distinctive numerals, in *ens*, which are adverbs: as, Erstens, in the first place; zweitens, secondly; drittens, thirdly, &c. And the following words: Bestens, in the best manner; ehestens, with the first opportunity; meistens, mostly; höchstens, at the most; übrigens, as for the rest, in the mean time. Likewise these compounds: Allerdings, by all means; schlechterdings,

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* Quintil. Inst Or. III. 11. *Affectata subtilitas, circa nomina rerum ambitiosè laborans.*

by any means; allerseits, on all sides; dießseits, on this side; jenseits, on the other side; beiderseits, on both sides; dießfalls, in this case; spornstreichs, immediately; vielmahls, many times.

The adverbial *s*, I consider as being, originally, the characteristick of the genitive case. For, in the first place, it is certain, that the letter *s* is generally used, in the German language, to mark that case. With this power, it is not confined to words of the masculine, or neuter gender, though it is chiefly appropriated to them; but it may also be subjoined to nouns feminine, when no other mode of distinction is at hand. Thus it is right to say, Flora's Schönheiten, the beauties of Flora, though Flora is a feminine; Dian'ens strenge Tugend, Diana's severe virtue.* In the next place, the genitive case occurs absolutely, that is to say, without being governed by any other word; where a case with a preposition might be expected, as is seen in these examples: Abends, or des Abends, for an dem Abend, in the evening; Morgens, or des Morgens, in the morning; Mittags, or des Mittags, at noon; Montags, on Monday: Dienstags, on Tuesday, &c.† Also with adjectives: as, Gerades Weges, straightways; keines Weges, by no means; widrigen Falles,

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* See p. 172.

† The genitive expresses, sometimes, state, or condition: as, der Meinung seyn, to be of opinion; vorhabens seyn, to be in the intention; Unmuthes seyn, to be in a state of displeasure, or in a state of dejection, to be displeased, to be dejected.

in case of any thing contrary happening; allen Falls, at all events; folgenden Tages, on the following day. In all these instances, the genitive case is characterised by the final *s*. This is even applied to nouns of the feminine gender: as, Nachts, in the night; Mittwochs, on Wednesday (supposing it to be from die Mittwoche.) And as these words, on account of the adventitious *s*, resemble the masculine, or neuter gender, the article of either of those genders is sometimes prefixed: as, des Nachts, des Mittwochs. But nouns feminine, having the characteristick *s*, are also found with adjectives, and pronouns, in their own gender, before them. For example, meiner Seits, on my part, from die Seite, the side; aller Seits on all parts. In dießseits, on this side; jenseits, on the other side, a contraction has taken place: for, analogous to the former, it should be, dieser Seits, jener Seits. In allerdings, which evidently comes from aller Dinge, that *s* accompanies even the plural number. It is, moreover, discovered in the composition of several words, which have been elsewhere* mentioned, such as, Achtserklärung, from die Acht; Hülfsmittel, from die Hülfe; Geburtstag, from die Geburt.

Thus it is shown, that nouns substantive, in the genitive, may stand, where, according to common grammar, a case with a preposition would be required: and farther, that those genitives are generally distinguished by the addition of the letter *s*. Now it may be said, as adverbs serve to express, in one word, the meaning of two

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* P. 178. III.

or more (for example, *wisely*, instead of *with wisdom** that, on the other hand, those genitive cases of substantives have the signification of adverbs. In that light many of them are, at present, viewed, and written in the same manner, as adverbs. For instance; Keinesweges, by no means; allenfalls, at all events; dießseits, on this side; jenseits, on the other side: allerdings, by all means. In short, the *s* of the genitive case is to be looked upon as an adverbial characteristick.† For the steps, that

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* See Lindley Murray's Grammar, p. 85.

† The adverbialising *s*, as it is called by an anonymous writer, in the Monthly Magazine, for February 1802, p. 307, exists in the English language: for example, in the words, *forwards, backwards, onwards, upwards, downwards, homewards, besides, straightways, perhaps, thus*; to which may be added, as that writer observes, *once, twice, thrice, hence, thence, whence, since, otherwise*, for the sound, at the end of these words, is that of *s*, though the spelling is different. It is to be found in the Dutch language, as he remarks, for instance, in these adverbs, *onlangs, dikwyls, eertyds, werwaards, derwaards*; to which may be joined many others, such as, *daags, dagelyks, jaarlyks, doorgaans, inmidels, eens, eensdeels, eensklaps, eensgangs, eensloefs, ergens, effentjes, fyntjes, weckjes, weetens, geenzins, vroejes*. And we add, not only in this but likewise in the other Teutonick dialects; for instance, the Swedish, and Danish. To mention some adverbs in each, you have in the Swedish, *sålledes*,

lead to this conclusion naturally follow one after the other; and there remains no difficulty in accounting for the final *s* in those words, with which this disquisition commenced. Namely, from substantives the adverbial *s* was transferred to adjectives, and participles: and by its assistance adverbs were formed. To explain this yet farther, certan substantives may be understood and those expressions be regarded as elliptical.* But as it would not be easy to find appropriate words for filling up the supposed ellipsis, in every situation, the notion must suffice, that, in imitation of the genitive cases of substantives, the characteristick *s* has been assigned to adjectives, and participles, for the purpose of producing

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sjölepes, ens, medens, merendels, sqättals, and others; in the Danish, *ensteds, etsteds, nogensteds, nogenledens, fireslags, iilends, imedens, indbyrdes*, &c. And it may be noticed, that, in these tongues, the characteristick *s* of the genitive asserts its claims in several compound substantives, in the same manner as in the German language. Examples: Dutch, *Oorlogsdaad, oorlogsgebruik, oorlogsgoed, oorlogsschip, oorlogskunde, hondsnest, hondsgras, hemelsbrod;* Swedish; *Arbetstag, arbetslön, bergsbo, bergsbruk, försvarsskrift, handelssed, sädesart;* Danish, *Aarstid, hiertensven, krigsbrug, krigsfange, krigsraad, landsherre, landsmand.* That this is the case in English, is well known: for ex. in *bondsman, kinsman, spokesman, salesman.*

* Something of this kind has been attempted, p. 229, II

adverbs. Most of them end simply in *s*: as, Folgends, subsequently; nachgehends, afterwards; öfters, repeatedly; stracks, straightways; vollends, to a great degree; and those mentioned before. Some, which are made of superlative degrees, or ordinal numbers, terminate in *ens*: as, Schönstens, in the finest manner; letztens, lately, the other day; viertens, fourthly; fünftens, fifthly, &c.

It will be understood, that though *s* is an adverbial termination, it is not permitted to create, by its means new adverbs, at pleasure, without the strictest analogy. It is, indeed, most safe to abstain from such novelties, and to be contented with what already exists, on good authority.

It has been said, in the beginning of this section, that every adjective may, by means of its first form, supply an adverb. Such an adverb may then, like the adjective, be carried through the degrees of comparison. For ex. Schön, beautifully; schöner, more beautifully; am schönsten, most beautifully.* The superlative degree is produced by prefixing am, and terminating the word by the syllable en.† There are a few adverbs, which dispense with that prefix and termination, and appear in the naked superlative form. For ex. Aeußerst, extremely; höchst, (most) highly; jüngst, latterly, lately. But in these, the superlative degree is almost forgotten, and they are considered as mere adverbs, having an intensive power.

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* See Chap. II, Sect 5.

† See p. 205, 5.

CHAPTER VII.

ON THE PREPOSITION.

Containing:

1. *The Prepositions with the Genitive Case.*
2. *Those with the Dative.*
3. *With the Accusative.*
4. *With the Dative and Accusative.*

SECTION I.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE GENITIVE CASE.

Anſtatt, or Statt, instead of.—Die Statt, denotes a place, and is the same as the English *stead;* anſtatt, therefore, means literally, in the place of, like the English *instead.* Sometimes it is separated: as, An des Bruders Statt, instead of the brother: where it resumes the nature of a substantive. Thus in English, *in his stead,* for, instead of him; *in its stead,* for, instead of it.—Statt, as a preposition, is an abridgment of anſtatt.

Beſage, pursuant, according to.

Halben, or Halber, on account of. It expresses a motive; and is always put after the case it governs. Halben, seems to be preferred, when the substantive, to which it is joined, has an article, or pronoun, before

t: as, des Geldes halben, on account of the money; but halber, is generally used, when there is no article: as, Vergnügens halber, on account, or for the sake, of pleasure. It occurs abbreviated in deßhalb, on that account; weßhalb, on which account; and in the four following compound prepositions.

Außerhalb, without, on the outside of.

Innerhalb, within, in the inner part of.

Oberhalb, above, on the upper side of.

Unterhalb, below, on the lower side of.*

Dießseits, on this side of; Lat. *cis*: as, Dießseits des Flusses, on this side of the river.

Jenseits, on the further side of; Lat. *trans*: as, Jenseits des Flusses, on the other side of the river.

Kraft, by the power of.

Laut, according to, conformably to, by the tendency of: as, Laut des Befehls, according to the order, or, by the tendency of the order.

Mittelst, or Vermittelst, by the means of.

Um-willen, for the sake of: as, Um Gottes willen, for God's sake; um Ihrer Ehre willen, for the sake of your honour

Ungeachtet, (or Ohngeachtet), notwithstanding. It may be placed before, or after, its case. Sometimes it is found with the dative: as, Dem ungeachtet, notwithstanding that. Ohngeachtet is not so proper, as, Ungeachtet.

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* Those four prepositions sometimes govern the dative case; and this is to be preferred, when another genitive follows. Example: Er stehet innerhalb dem Ziele seiner Ungnade, he is within the scope of his displeasure.

Unweit, not far from: as, Unweit des Dorfes, not far from the village.

Vermöge, by dint of, by the power of, by means of: as, Vermöge der Uebung, by dint of practice; vermöge des Fleißes, by means of diligence.

Während, during: as, Während des Krieges, during the war.

Wegen, 1. because of, on account of; as, Ich that es meines Vaters wegen, I did it because of my father. 2. Concerning, with regard to, relating to: as, Er sprach mit mir wegen des Hauses, he spoke to me concerning the house. It may stand before, or after, the word it governs; most commonly it is put before.

Längs, along, is found with the genitive. See the next page.

Zufolge, in consequence of, occurs with the genitive; generally it governs the dative.

Außer, out of, has the genitive case after it, in one instance, viz. außer Landes, out of the country. See the next section.

SECTION II.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE DATIVE CASE.

Aus, out of.

Außer, 1. out of, on the outside of: as, Außer dem Hause, out of the house. 2. Out of, not within, passing the bounds of, in a state of deviation from: as, Außer Ordnung, out of order; außer Stande, out of condition;

ich war außer mir, I was beside myself, I was deprived of the use of my senses. 3. Besides, over and above: as, Außer den Bürgern von London kamen auch viele Fremde, besides the citizens of London, many strangers also came. It takes the genitive in one phrase, viz. außer Landes, out of the country, abroad.

Bey, See Sect. IV.

Entgegen. 1. towards, so as to meet; united with verbs of motion: as, Wir wollen unserm Freunde entgegen gehen, we will go to meet our friend; der Knabe läuft seinem Vater entgegen, the boy runs to meet his father. 2. Against, opposed to, contrary to: as, das Heer steht ihm entgegen, the army stands against him; dieß war seiner Meinung entgegen, this was against his opinion. It stands after its case.

Gegenüber, over against, opposite to: as, dem Hause gegenüber, opposite the house. It may be divided, and gegen put before the case: as, gegen dem Hause über.

Längs, along: as, Längs dem Flusse, along the river. Sometimes with the genitive: as, noch so viele längs seines Zuges durch Deutschland zurückgelassene Besatzungen, hatten sein Heer nicht vermindert,* not even the many garrisons he left behind him, along his route through Germany, had diminished his army. It is also found with the accusative but this is quite provincial.

Mit, with.

Nach. 1. after, posterior in time, behind. 2. To, in

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* Geschichte des dreißigjährigen Krieges, von F. Schiller, vol. iii. p. 500.

a direction to, towards; with names of places, and verbs of motion; as, dieser Mann reis't nach Deutschland, this man travels to Germany; wenn gehen Sie nach der Stadt, when do you go to town; lassen Sie uns nach Hause gehen, let us go home. 3. It notes what may be called concomitant direction, in certain phrases: as, der Nase nach, following your nose, straight forward; dem Strome nach, following the stream; dem Striche nach, following the grain. And in these instances, it stands after the case it governs. 4. According to: as, Nach der Beschreibung des Livius, according to the account of Livy. In the signification last mentioned, it may be put after its case when no other word is governed by, and follows after, that case: as, der Beschreibung nach, according to the description; seiner Geburt nach, according to his birth; seiner Herkunft nach, according to his origin, by origin; meiner Meinung nach, according to, or in my opinion; dem Ansehen nach, according to appearance. But if the substantive were to have another substantive after it, which it governed, the preposition must stand before its case: as, Nach der Beschreibung des Livius.

Nebst, (or, Benebst), together with, besides, including —Benebst, is provincial.

Ob, over, on, at, during, on account of. It is not much in use.

> Es stutzt ob solchem Getöse das Wild, und eilet von dannen.
> Kleist, Frühling, p. 28.

Sammt, together with; almost obsolete.

Seit, since. Seitdem, since that time, is used as a conjunction, or an adverb.

Von, 1. notes an agent, Eng. by, Lat. *a*, *ab*: as, das

Haus ist von dem Könige erbaut, the house was built by the king; das Buch ist von ihm geschrieben, that book is written by him. 2. Of. 3. From. 4. With an following, it marks extent of time: as, Von der ersten Kindheit an, from the first infancy.

Zu, 1. to: as, Komm zu mir, come to me. 2. At, of place: as, zu Windsor, at Windsor; zu Hause, at home; zu Wasser, by water, at sea; zur See, at sea; zu Lande, on land. 3. At, of time: as, zu jener Zeit, at that time. 4. At, of proportion: as, die Guinee zu ein und zwanzig Schillingen, the guinea at twenty-one shillings; das Pfund zu sechzehn Unzen gerechnet, the pound reckoned at sixteen ounces. 5. On: as, zu Pferde, on horseback; zu Fuße, on foot. 6. It notes the transition, or transformation, to a certain state: as, zum Könige wählen, to elect a person king; zum Thoren machen, to make a fool of a person; zum Narren gemacht werden, to be made a fool of.—In English, the preposition *to* forms the dative; in German, as that case is distinguished by the article, and frequently also by the termination of the substantive, zu must not be employed, except where motion, place, direction, are to be expressed.—Zu is in certain circumstances, like the English *to*, found before the infinitive mood, as will be shown, in the 2d Part of the Grammar.—It is used as an adverb, and signifies as such: 1. the shutting or closing of a thing: as, mach die Thür zu, shut the door; ist das Fenster zu, is the window shut? 2. Haste: as, Geh zu, go on; fahre zu, drive on. 3. Too, overmuch: as, Zu viel, too much.

Zufolge, in consequence of, according to. Always put after the dative; it is sometimes, but rarely, joined

to a genitive case, which it precedes: as, Zufolge Ihres Befehles, in consequence of your order.

Zuwider, against, in opposition to. After the case.

The following prepositions: Außerhalb, without; innerhalb, within; oberhalb, above; unterhalb, below; ungeachtet, notwithstanding—sometimes take the dative case; but most commonly the genitive. See Sect. I.

SECTION III.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE ACCUSATIVE.

Durch, 1. through. 2. By, noting an instrument, or means: as, durch einen Pistolenschuß getödtet, killed by a pistol shot; durch Sturm erobert, taken by storm. 3. It notes duration, when it is put after: as, die ganze Nacht durch, all the night through; das ganze Jahr durch, all the year through. In this sense, hindurch, which is an adverb, is also frequently used, die ganze Nacht hindurch, &c.

Für, for.

Gegen, 1. to, towards; expressing direction, and tendency. 2. Against.—Gen, is an ancient abbreviation of gegen, not in use at present; except in a few phrases, as, gen Himmel, to, or towards, heaven.

Ohne, without, not with, Fr. *sans*.

Sonder, the same in signification, as the former, but not much used. It can only be put, when the substantive has no article: Sonder Geist, without spirit; sonder Zweifel, without doubt.

Um, 1. around, about: as, Um den Tisch sitzen, to sit about the table; um die Stadt gehen, to go around the town, that is to say, round the circumference of the town. 2. It signifies succession, change, vicissitude: as, Einen Tag um den andern, every other day. 3. A loss: as, Um etwas kommen, to lose a thing; es ist um ihn geschehen, it is over with him, he is lost; der Mensch hat mich um mein Geld betrogen, the man has cheated me out of my money. 4. It marks an object: as, um Geld spielen, to play for money; um den Sieg fechten, to fight for the victory. 5. A comparison: as, Um zwey Drittel reicher, more rich by two thirds; um zehn Jahre jünger, younger by ten years. 6. It expresses a reference, with respect to, as far as relates to; for example, Es ist eine ungewisse Sache um den Krieg, as for the war, it is an uncertain thing; wie steht es um ihre Gesundheit, how is it with respect to your health?—Um sometimes precedes the preposition zu, before the infinitive; and indicates purpose, and design: as, um zu schreiben, for the purpose of writing.—As an adverb, um denotes a circuit: as, dieser Weg ist um, this way is about —; and conclusion: as, das Jahr ist um, the year is brought to a conclusion, has passed through its circle. Um und um, means, on all sides

Wider, against, in opposition to.

SECTION IV.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE DATIVE AND ACCUSATIVE CASES.

These prepositions depend, for the most part, upon the notion of locality, with which they are connected, to determine the case they are to govern. If a state of rest, or permanent locality, is understood, the dative case is required to be joined with them: and the accusative should be made use of, when motion *to* a place is signified. That distinction may be rendered easy and intelligible, by applying the questions, *where, in* what place? and *whereto, to* what place? A few examples will show this. An, means on, near to, against. Der Tisch steht an der Wand, the table stands near, or against, the wall. Here the preposition governs the dative: for the question, where, *in* what place? may be applied—where, *in* what place does the table stand? and a state of rest, or permanent locality, is intimated. In the following: Setze den Tisch an die Wand, put the table against the wall; a motion *to* the place is implied, and the preposition united with the accusative. The table is to be moved to some place, and naturally the question, whereto, *to* what place? is suggested. Thus with auf, upon: das Buch liegt auf dem Tische, the book lies upon the table. Dative case; where, in what place? Legen Sie das Buch auf den Tisch, lay the book upon the table: accusative. The book is to be moved to some place, and the question may be put, whereto, to what place? Hinter,

behind: Er steht hinter mir, he stands behind me. Dative; question, where, in what place? Kommen Sie hinter mich, come behind me: accusative, for here a motion *to* a place is thought of. The same in the next example: Zwischen, between—Er saß zwischen dem Bruder und der Schwester, he sat between the brother and the sister; dative. Er trat zwischen den Bruder und die Schwester, he stept between the brother and the sister; accusative. Hence In, with the dative case, signifies *in*; and with the accusative, *into*. The question depends upon the idea of motion, or permanency: the latter requires the dative, the former the accusative. When that idea is not precisely determined, an uncertainty likewise arises in the use of the cases. For example: Ein Haus auf dem Berge bauen, to build a house upon the mountain; auf, with the dative: and, ein Haus auf den Berg bauen; auf, with the accusative. If the notion prevails, that the operation of building is carrying on, *in* such a place, the dative case is proper. But if motion be imagined, by which, through the process of building, a house is, as it were, conveyed upon the mountain, then the question, whereto, to what place? presents itself; and the accusative may be admitted. Das Heer lagert sich auf dem Berge, the army encamps upon the mountain. Here is the dative case, after auf, in consequence of the question, where? But the accusative may stand, if, in idea, motion, towards the mountain, precedes the act of encamping: das Heer lagert sich auf den Berg. Sometimes, those two cases involve a difference of signification. For, der Knabe läuft in dem Garten, (in with the dative), and der Knabe läuft in den Garten, (accusative), greatly differ in meaning. The former ex-

presses, the boy runs, or takes the exercise of running, in the garden; and the latter, he runs into the garden. Er reitet auf dem Berge (dative), he rides, takes the exercise of riding, upon the mountain; and er reitet auf den Berg, (accusative), he rides to the top of the mountain.

An, *on, with the Dative,* notes, 1. locality, at, on, near, in: as, An einem Orte wohnen, to live at a place; an dem Ufer eines Flusses, on the bank of a river; an der Thür, at the door; also, upon the door; an meiner Stelle, in my place. 2. The object of an action, in, at: as, die Verdienste des Vaters an dem Kinde belohnen, to reward the merits of the father in the child; mein Freund arbeitet an einem Buche, my friend works at, or is engaged in, a book. 3. A cause, by, of: as, der junge Mensch ist an einer Auszehrung gestorben, that young man died of a consumption. 4. A state, condition, manner, in, by: as, reich an Freunden, rich in friends; groß an Ruhme, great in fame; schwach an Verstande, weak in understanding; man kennt den Vogel an den Federn und das Silber an dem Klange, the bird is known by its plumage, and the silver by its sound. To this signification the first, or adverbial, form of the superlative degree may be referred:* as, am schönsten, in the finest manner; am besten, in the best manner. And the expression, am Leben, living, alive; as, er ist noch am Leben, he is still alive.† 5. Time, in, at, on: as, am Anfange,

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* See, p. 205, 5.

† Thus, in old English, *on life.* Sir David Lindsay's Poetical Works: *Auld Willie Dillie, were he on lyve.* The adjective *alive* may have come from that expression.

at the beginning; am dritten Tage, on the third day. 6. When combined with von, it signifies extent of time: as, Von diesem Tage an, from this day forth.

An, *with the Accusative*, expresses, 1, direction, to: as, an einen Freund schreiben, to write to a friend; ich werde das Buch an meinen Bruder schicken, I shall send the book to my brother. 2. An object: as, an eine Sache glauben, to believe in a thing; an etwas denken, to think of, to remember, a thing. 3. Extent of space, and time, when connected with bis: for example, bis an die See, as far as the sea; bis an den Abend, to, or until, this evening.

Auf, upon, *with the Dative*, notes, 1. the locality of a higher place, upon, on, in: as, auf dem Thurme, upon the tower; auf dem Berge, upon the mountain; auf dem Dache, upon the roof; auf dem Schlosse, on, or in, the castle. Likewise, auf der Stube, or auf dem Zimmer, in the room, or in the apartment, if the room, or the apartment, is in the upper story of a house, and the person speaking, below. If it be on the floor, or in the same story with the person speaking, the proposition in, is generally made use of, in der Stube, in dem Zimmer. 2. It signifies locality, in general: for example, auf dem Dorfe seyn, to be in the village; auf dem Lande wohnen, to live in the country; auf der Jagd, at the chace; auf dem Balle, at the ball; auf der Post, at the post-office; auf der Gasse, in the street; auf der Universität, or plur. auf Universitäten, at the university; auf der Schule, or plur. auf Schulen, at school; auf der Reise, on the journey, or plur. auf Reisen, on one's travels.

Auf, *with the Accusative*, has the two foregoing significations, attended with the question *whereto?* and there-

fore denotes, 1. direction to a higher place: as, auf den Thurm steigen, to mount upon the tower, &c. 2. Local direction, in general: as, auf das Land reisen, to travel, or to go, into the country; auf den Ball gehen, to go to the ball; auf die Gasse laufen, to run into the street. 3. It notes an object; and may be variously rendered, in English. For instance, auf eine Sache denken, to think of a thing; aufmerksam auf etwas seyn, to attend to a thing; auf jemanden zürnen, to be incensed against somebody; auf einen Freund warten, to wait for a friend. 4. It notes proportion: as, eine Mahlzeit auf vier Personen, a dinner for four persons; so viel auf den Mann, so much upon the man. 5. Extent, when preceded by bis: as, bis auf den letzten Pfennig, up to the last farthing; bis auf den letzten Blutstropfen, to the last drop of blood; bis auf vier Thaler, up to four dollars. 6. It signifies a way and manner: as, auf Deutsche Art, in the German way; auf Englischen Fuß, in the English manner. Thus, auf Deutsch, in German; auf Französisch, in French; auf Englisch, in English—applied to the languages. To this may be added the expressions, with the superlative degree of adjectives: as, auf das, or aufs, beste, in the best manner, aufs vortrefflichste, in the most excellent manner*. Likewise the following: auf Angriff, upon attack, or upon the offensive; auf den Hieb, literally, upon the cut, as with the broad sword; auf den Stoß, or auf den Stich, upon the thrust, or point, as with the small sword. 7. It means in consequence of, pursuant to: as, auf Befehl, in consequence of an order, pursuant to an order.

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* See p. 206.

8. It notes future time: as, auf den Montag, on Monday, or next Monday. 9. Duration of time: as, Vorrath auf viele Jahre, store for many years; auf zwey Monathe, for two months; auf kurze Zeit, for a short time.—Auf einmal, at once.—Auf, as an adverb, answers to the English *up:* as, Steh auf, get up. It is put before the conjunction daß, to signify purpose, or design: as, auf daß, in order that, for the purpose that. It is used as an interjection, to animate and encourage: as, auf! folget mir, come, follow me.

Bey.* *with the Dative,* notes 1. proximity, by the side of, beside, near to, by, Lat. *juxta*: as, er steht bey dem Könige, he stands by, or near, the king. 2. With,

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* The preposition bey, was, in the two first editions, placed in the 2d. Section, among those, which exclusively govern the dative case. This was done in deference to Mr. Adelung's authority; but I found it necessary, upon consideration, to remove it to its present station. The reasons for this change were: 1. Analogy, as stated in the next page. 2. Prevailing usage, in the greatest part (as I conceive) of Germany. 3. The authority of respectable writers; and lastly 4. the decision of some eminent grammarians. Mr. Adelung insists, that it is against the idiom of the High German, to join that preposition with the accusative; and yet he finds it with this case, in several passages of Luther's translation of the Bible: which surely is no indifferent authority in a question, touching the High German. See Adelung's Dictionary, and compare with it that of Campe.

in company of, Fr. *chez, auprès de*: as, der Arzt ist bey ihm gewesen, the physician has been with him. 3. At, present at, with, noting co-existence of time: as, bey der Schöpfung, at the creation: bey dem Gedanken, at the thought; bey allen dem blieb er unentschlossen, with all that he remained irresolute. 4. It serves for quotation; in Lat. *apud*, Fr. *chez*: as, bey dem Plato, in Plato; beym Cicero, in Cicero. 5. For swearing, and obtesting, by, upon: as, bey Jupiter, by Jove; bey meiner Ehre, upon my honour.

Bey, *with the Accusative*, is used in the first signification, when motion to a place is implied: as, setzen Sie sich bey mich, seat yourself near me; lege diese Feder bey das Papier, put this pen by the paper: tritt bey deinen Bruder, go, and stand by your brother. Thus it is current in a great, and perhaps the greatest part of Germany; and is by analogy, since it denotes locality, as much entitled to the two cases, as other prepositions.

By, in English, frequently expresses the agent, cause, or instrument; which power is never assigned, to the German bey.

Hinter, behind governs, like the other prepositions, *the Dative* case, with the question *where?* and *the Accusative*, with the question *whereto?*—When connected with the particle her—hinter-her, behind, after, following—it only admits the dative. For example, ich ging hinter dem Manne her, I walked after the man, I followed him: er kommt hinter mir her, he comes after me.

In, *with the Dative*, in.

In, *with the Accusative*, 1. into. 2. With bis, it marks extent of space, or time: as, bis in das Zimmer,

as far as the chamber; bis in die Nacht, till night; bis in Ewigkeit, to eternity.

Neben, beside, at the side of, Lat. *juxta.*

Ueber, *with the Dative,* 1. over, above; with respect to place. 2. Above; with respect to excellence, or rank. 3. During; with respect to time, or occupation: as, über der Arbeit, while at work; über dem Lesen, while reading: über Tische, at dinner, while at table.

Ueber, *with the Accusative,* 1. over, implying motion. 2. Above, beyond, signifying excess: as, über meine Kräfte, beyond my strength; über vierzig Jahre, above forty years. 3. With the adverb bis, it expresses extent: as, bis über die Ohren, over the ears. 4. It notes a cause, about, on account of: as, sich über eine Sache ärgern, to be vexed on account of a certain thing; sich über etwas grämen to grieve about something. 5. It marks an object, upon, concerning: as, über einen gewissen Gegenstand sprechen, schreiben, to speak, or write, upon a certain subject; über die Tugend, upon virtue; über das Laster, upon vice. 6. It signifies future time, when it is placed before the case: as, Heute über acht Tage, from this day se'nnight, or in a se'nnight from hence; über das, or übers Jahr, next year; über Nacht, to night; über lang oder kurz, literally, over long, or short, that means, some time or other. 7. It also expresses continuance of time, or duration, when it is put after: as, den Sommer über, during the summer: das Jahr über, during the year, or the year through; den Tag über, during the day.

Unter, *with the Datire,* and *Accusative,* 1. under, beneath. 2. Among. 3. With the *Dative,* it has the power of denoting time, in, under, during: as, unter der

Regierung Georg des Dritten, in the reign of George the third; unter dem Essen, during dinner, while at dinner; unter dem Lesen, while reading. In this sense, it seems to have formerly governed the genitive case: for there exists a provincial expression, unter Tages, during the day; and another, which is in general use, unter Weges, on the way: both of them construed with that case.

Vor, before, *with the Dative and Accusative.*—With the *Dative*, it sometimes involves a cause: as, vor dem Feinde fliehen, to fly from the enemy;* vor dem Tode erschrecken, to be frightened at death; vor Freude weinen, to weep for joy; vor Lachen zerplatzen, to burst with laughing; vor Gram sterben, to die with grief. With the same case it also denotes time past, signifying *ago*: as, vor drey Jahren, three years ago.

Zwischen, between. It is sometimes, but improperly, used instead of unter, among.

Additional Remarks on the Prepositions.

I. The proper use of the prepositions requires an intimate acquaintance with the character of the German language. For it is not sufficient to render them literally; but the peculiar nature of every expression must be considered. The phrase, which, in English, demands such a preposition, may in German, have one totally different in signification; one language may employ *for*, where the other will use *upon*, *with*, &c. It is therefore not enough to peruse a list of the preposisions; but

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* In English the phrase might also be, *to fly before the enemy*, in which, however, a different idea prevails.

it is necessary to attend to their application, in phraseology

II. The prepositions are always placed before their cases, a few only excepted. In English, a preposition may be put quite at the end of the sentence; and this must be done, when the relative pronoun is to be understood: as, *The man I spoke of*, for, *the man of whom I spoke; the books he referred to*, for, *the books to which he referred; the subject I am engaged in*, for *in which I am engaged.* Nor is it unusual with interrogative pronouns: as: *Who for? who to? what for? who is this money for? what is that for?* These modes of speaking are common, in English; but the German language neither allows the omission of the relative pronoun, nor the transposing of the preposition.

III. It has been remarked, in the foregoing pages,* that instead of pronouns demonstrative, relative, and interrogative, the local adverbs, Hier, da, wo, are joined with prepositions: as, hiermit, hiervon; damit, daran, daneben, daraus, darüber; wobey, woran, &c. Namely, Hier, here, (which, in this composition, is sometimes changed into hie, as hiemit,) holds the place of the demonstrative, dieser; da, there, is put for derselbe, or der; wo, where, for welcher, wer, was. The preposition in, combined with such an adverb, is made ein, when it signifies *into*. Say, therefore, es ist darin, it is *in* it; but, thue es darein, put it *into* it. So hierin, herein, in this, herein, in

* P. 242, 10, and 250, 8.

here, into this place.—Those adverbs are, occasionally separated from the prepositions: as, da habe ich nicht an gedacht, for, daran habe ich nicht gedacht, of that I have not thought; da hüten Sie sich vor, for, davor hüten Sie sich, beware of that; da hat er keine Neigung zu, for, dazu hat er keine Neigung, for that he has no inclination; wo einem vor ekelt, for, wovor einem ekelt, which one loathes. It is better to preserve those words united. The separation is, however, very usual in these phrases: Da sey Gott vor, God forbid; da Gott vor sey, which God forbid.—The following contractions are to be met with: Dran, drauf, draus, drein, drin, drunter, drüber, drum, &c. for daran, darauf, daraus, darein, darin, darunter, darüber, darum; but they are improper. It may be noticed, that prepositions are permitted to stand before adverbs, as in English: for instance, von hier, from hence; von da, von dort, from thence, from yonder; von oben, from above; von unten, from below; seit gestern, since yesterday; auf heute, for to-day.

IV. Some prepositions coalesce with the definite article. With the dative, masculine and neuter, dem, the following: an, in, von, zu. An dem, becomes am; in dem, im; von dem, vom; zu dem, zum. With the dative feminine, der, zu, only: as, zur, for zu der. With the accusative neuter, das; an, auf, durch, für, in; as, ans, for an das; aufs, for auf das; durchs, for durch das; fürs, for für das; ins, for in das.*—There are other coalitions, but

* Wieland has a spurious contraction ins, from in des, of the preposition with a case, which does not belong to

not equally sanctioned by good language: as, vors, from vor das; vorm, for vor dem; übern, from über den; übers, from über das, unterm, from unter dem; unters, from unter das. With regard to those first mentioned, they may either be adopted, or the preposition be put to the article, without being incorporated with it. In some phrases, however, the contraction alone is admitted: as, am Anfange, or im Anfange, at, or in the beginning: am Leben, alive; am besten, am schönsten, in the best, in the finest manner; zur Noth, if necessary.

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it: for des is the genitive. See *Wieland's Sämmtliche Werke. Supplement*, 1 Band, p. 47, last line, and p. 68, line 3. It is entirely wrong, and can be called nothing else but negligence in writing,

CHAPTER VIII.

ON THE CONJUNCTION.

CONJUNCTIONS are particles, which serve to connect words and sentences, and to bring them into a certain relation with one another. As this connexion, and relation, may be effected in different ways, the conjunctions may, accordingly, be divided into various classes. Those, which merely join; for instance, *and, also,* &c. may be denominated COPULATIVE; those, which imply opposition: as, *either, or, neither, nor, though, although, yet, nevertheless,* &c. DISJUNCTIVE. Some note a condition: as, *if, otherwise,* &c.; and may be called CONDITIONAL. Others a cause: as, *for, because, since, therefore,* &c. CASUAL. Some make a comparison: for instance, *as, so, like, than,* &c.; these may be named COMPARATIVE. And those which refer to time, or the succession of events: for example, *then, when, while, before, after,* &c. may either be styled TEMPORAL, or CONSECUTIVE.

That classification may be made still more precise, and minute; and the distinction rendered more accurate. But this is rather an object for speculation, than for practical purposes. Let it suffice, for our views, to subjoin a list of the most obvious German conjunctions, in

alphabetical order, accompanied with the necessary observations.

Aber, but. It does not always place the sentences in opposition, but like the Latin *autem, vero,* sometimes only joins them; in other words, it has not only a disjunctive, but also a copulative power.

Allein, but, Lat. *sed, at,* is merely disjunctive.

Als, has, 1. a comparative signification, expressing *as,* and *than*: for instance, so warm als im Sommer, as warm as in summer; reicher als Crösus, more rich than Crœsus, 2. It notes quality, and condition: as, ich als Herr von diesem Hause, I as master of this house. 3. It is temporal, or consecutive, and signifies *when*: Als ich in London ankam, when I arrived in London.—Als wenn, as if: so wohl als auch, as well as.

Also, 1. so, thus. 2. Therefore.

Auch, also.

Auf daß, in order that.

Bevor, before; Lat. *priusquam.*

Da, 1. then. 2. When. 3. Since, as, implying a cause. As an averb, it signifies, *there.*

Daher, therefore, thence. Adverb, daher, from that place, thence.—The conjunction has the accent, on the last; the adverb, on the first syllable. The accent, however, may vary: the conjunction may have it on the first, and the adverb on the last. Whenever it is on the first, it renders the word pointedly demonstrative.

Dafern, if, in case that.

Dann, then. Alsdann, is the same in signification. Adverb, dann und wann, now and then.

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Dárum, on that account, for that reason. Darúm, therefore. When the accent is on the first syllable, it is strongly demonstrative.

Daß, that.

Denn, 1. for, because; Lat. *nam, enim.* 2. Then. 3. Unless, after some verbs in the subjunctive mood: as, ich werde nicht ausgehen, es sey denn, daß die Noth mich zwänge. I shall not go out, unless it be, that necessity should compel me. Du sollst nicht sterben, du habest denn den Herrn gesehen, thou shalt not die unless thou have seen the Lord. It is however, not very common in this sense, except after es sey, it be. 4. Than: Wer ist besser denn Gott, who is better than God? Ehe denn ich flöhe, sooner than I should run away. This signification is rather antiquated: modern language would prefer als, in the first example, and omit denn in the second, without substituting for it another word.

Dennoch, notwithstanding, nevertheless, still.

Derhalben, (derohalben), deßhalben, (deßhalb, or deshalb), therefore, on that account.

Desto, stands always before a comparative degree, and notes proportion; which, in English, is expressed by the definite article: for example, ich erwartete Ihre Ankunft nicht und desto größer ist meine Freude, I did not expect your arrival, and *the* greater is my joy. When two comparative sentences are brought together, the first generally begins with the conjunction je, and desto answers it in the second: as, je ruhiger das Leben ist, desto geschickter ist es zum Nachdenken, *the* more quiet life is, *the* more fit it is for reflection. Sometimes, desto is placed in the first mem-

of the sentence, and je in the second: as, Ein Kunstwerk ist desto schöner, je vollkommener es ist, a work of art is *the* more beautiful, *the* more perfect it is.

Dieweil, because; obsolete.

Doch, yet, nevertheless, however, but; Lat. *tamen.*

Ehe, before; Lat. *priusquam.*

Entweder, either; always followed by oder, or.

Falls, in case that. Falls es geschehen sollte, in case it should happen.

Ferner, farther, moreover.

Folglich, consequently.

Hingegen, on the other hand.

Je, is proportional, before a comparative degree. See Desto.—Sometimes it is used, instead of desto: as, Je eher, je lieber, the sooner, the more agreeable; je mehr, je besser, the more, the better; for, desto lieber, desto besser.—Je nachdem, according as.

Jedennoch, yet, nevertheless.

Jedoch, yet, the same as Doch.

Im Falle, in case that, if.

Immaßen, whereas, since.

Indem, 1. while. 2. Because, since.

Indessen, in the mean while.

Ingleichen, or Imgleichen, likewise.

Kaum, scarce. Kaum hatte er ausgeredet, als ihn ein plötzliches Grausen überfiel, scarce had he finished his speech, when a sudden horror seized him.

Mithin, consequently.

Nachdem, after; Lat. *postquam.*—Je nachdem, according as.

Nämlich, namely.

Nicht allein, nicht nur, not only; followed by sondern auch, but also.

Noch, has two significations, so different in their nature, that it is difficult to conceive, how they can belong to the same word. 1. It denotes continuations of time: as, Noch eine Stunde, one hour more; noch vier oder fünf Wochen, four or five weeks more. It answers to the English, yet, still. Noch nicht, not yet. 2. It has a negative power, expressing the English *nor*, when weder, *neither*, has preceded.

Nun, now.

Ob, whether, if.

Obgleich, obschon, obwohl, though, although. These conjunctions are often divided: as, ob ich gleich krank war, although I was ill; ob er schon zu Hause war, though he was at home. That separation generally, and almost necessarily, takes place, when a monosyllable follows; such as, Ich, du, er, es, wir, ihr, sie, or the oblique cases of these pronouns. Even two, or three of these monosyllables may be put between: as, ob ich mich gleich freue, though I am glad; ob wir uns ihm gleich gezeigt haben, though we have shown ourselves to him. With other words it is optional, whether those conjunctions are to be divided, or not. When they begin a sentence, the following member corresponds to them by means of the conjunctions doch, dennoch; or similar particles: as, demungeachtet, notwithstanding that; nichts desto weniger, nevertheless. Ob er gleich alt ist, so hat er doch den völligen Gebrauch seiner Geisteskräfte, although he is old, he still has the perfect use of his mental faculties

Oder, or.

Ohngeachtet, notwithstanding. It is not so correct, as Ungeachtet.

Seit, Seitdem, since, from the time that.

Sintemal, or Sintemalen, because, since; antiquated.

So, 1. so, thus. 2. It serves to connect the subsequent member of a sentence with the foregoing, commonly, when the conjunctions, wenn, when; weil, da, nachdem, wie, damit, obgleich, obschon, precede, and almost always after wenn, if, beginning the sentence. For example: Wenn mein Bruder kömmt, so sagen Sie es ihm, when my brother comes, tell it him. Da er in Rom eintraf, so fand er die Stadt in den Händen seiner Feinde, when he arrived at Rome, he found the city in the hands of his enemies. Wenn der Knabe, fleißig ist, so kann er zu großen Ehren gelangen, if the boy be diligent, he may arrive at great honours. Sometimes, the conjunction wenn, if, is understood, in the first member; and so must likewise begin the following member: as, wärest du hier geblieben, so würden die Sachen besser stehen, hadst thou staid here, (which is the same as—if thou hadst staid here), affairs would be in a better condition. 3. So, occasionally notes, therefore. 4. If, on condition that: as, So Gott will, if God please, or please God. 5. So wohl als auch, or so wohl als, as well as. Likewise, with the same meaning, so als; but seldom. 6. When auch follows, it is to be rendered by, *however*: So groß die Schrecken des Krieges auch seyn mögen, so konnten sie doch seinen Sinn nicht bändigen, however great the terrours of war may be, yet they could not curb his spirit. Here als is sometimes put before it: So angenehm als es auch seyn mag, so kann es doch nie gebilligt werden, agreeable as it may be, it can never be approved. And it is some-

times omitted, als remaining by itself in the same signification. Reitzend als es mir war, so einformig würde es in der Erzählung werden, attractive as it was to me, it would be monotonous in narration.*—So wie, as.

Sondern, but, disjunctive. It is only used, when a negative goes before. Nicht edel, sondern kleinmüthig, not noble, but pusillanimous.

Sonst, else, otherwise.

Theils,—theils, partly, partly.

Uebrigens, as for the rest, however.

Ueberdieß, besides.

Und, and.

Ungeachtet, notwithstanding.

Während, während dem, während daß, while.

Wann, for wenn, when, provincial. Adverb, Dann und wann, now and then.

Weder, neither, followed by noch, nor.

Weil, because. (Sometimes, while.)

Wenn, 1. When. Thus it is synonimous with Da, (als, wie; for these occur under the same meaning, as da); though it is differently applied. Da, is always connected with preterite tenses, and declares an action that is passed. Wenn, on the other hand, refers to what is present, or future. It is, therefore, peculiarly appropriated to convey general ideas; whereas da relates to particular events. This will be better understood, from some examples. Da er nach London kam, so fand er seinen Freund, when he came

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* See Elements of German Grammar. Appendix, Sect. IV. note 47.

to London, he found his friend. *He came*, and *he found*, are preterite tenses; the actions that are intimated, are passed, and consequently, da must be employed, to express *when*. Wenn ich zu ihm komme, so finde ich ihn immer bey den Büchern, when I come to him, I always find him at his books. *I come, I find*, are present tenses, and the subject is of a general import; therefore, wenn is made use of. In the following, one verb is in the future, the other in the present; and wenn is likewise required, to answer to the English *when*. Wenn ihr meine Stimme hören werdet, so eilt, when you shall hear my voice, hasten. Wenn sie nach Paris kommen, so werden Sie die alten Kunstwerke nicht mehr sehen, when you come to Paris, you will no longer see the ancient works of art. The use of wenn entirely depends upon the time of the action: when that is considered as gone by, wenn is *not* to be employed; but when the action is present, or yet to come, then it is the right conjunction. It may, therefore, stand before the perfect tense, when the action alluded to, is not really passed, but only stated as such, by anticipation: for example, wenn Sie dieß verrichtet haben, so schreiben Sie mir, when you have done this, write to me. On the other hand, the historical style, to enliven the narration, sometimes assumes the present for the past tense. But still the action it refers to, is passed; and wenn, under these circumstances, cannot be put instead of da, wie, or als.—The English interrogative *when*, is always rendered by wenn, never by da.—Some persons write wann, instead of wenn, with a view to distinguish the first signification of this conjunction, from the second (if). Wann, however, is nothing more than a peculiarity of the Upper German,

and in Upper Germany promiscuously denotes *when*, and *if*. 2. If, supposing that.—It never stands in the signification of *whether*, after indirect, or disjunctive questions, in which sense *if* is used by the English; in other words, it never expresses the English *whether*, or the Latin *an*. In these phrases, for example: I do not know *if* (or *whether*) it is so: ask him, *if* (or *whether*) he has got it?"—the German wenn could not be employed. The proper word would be, ob.

Wenngleich, wennschon, although. They may be separated in the same manner as obgleich, obschon.*

Wie, 1. how. 2. As, both in a comparative, and consecutive sense; as, when. Wie die Jugend, so das Alter, as the youth, so old age; comparative. Wie er das sah, rief er aus, as, or when he saw that, he exclaimed; consecutive. It also expresses *than*, though als is better adapted to this purpose.

Wiefern, how far. In wiefern, in how far.

Wiewohl, though.

Wo, sometimes stands for *if*. Otherwise it signifies *where*, and is an adverb.

Wofern, if, in case that.

Wohl, indeed, perhaps, may be; Lat. *quidem*. It has the nature of a suppletive particle, and cannot always be exactly translated. Das ist wohl wahr, that, indeed may be true. Wissen Sie wohl, do you perhaps know? As an adverb, it signifies *well*.

Zwar, indeed, it is so, allowing it; generally followed by aber, allein, doch, dennoch, or a similar disjunctive.

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* See p. 390.

Obzwar, sometimes occurs with the signification of obgleich, obschon, although.

Some of the conjunctions appear, in certain situations, to govern the subjunctive mood; and some have the power, in the structure of a sentence, of removing the verb to the end. These circumstances will be noticed, at large, in the Second Part of the Grammar.

CHAPTER IX.

ON THE INTERJECTION.

THE interjection is arbitrarily inserted, in any sentence, to express emotion in the speaker, or writer. It is the most simple of all the parts of speech, and has justly been considered as the first element of language. Interjections were the primitive sounds, which marked the feelings of man. They are not founded upon the association of ideas; but produced by the immediate impulse of sensation. They were gradually combined, and led to the formation of words. As they are not liable to any grammatical changes themselves, nor influence the state of other words, they occupy but little room, in either part of grammar. Here, those may be mentioned, which occur most commonly, in the German language. Some indicate joy: as, Ah! ach! Mirth and gaiety: as, Sa! hey! heysa! Loud exclamations of the same kind: Juch! juchhey! The following betoken sorrow, and displeasure: Ach! ah! oh! Pain, Ach! weh! au! auweh! Disgust: Fi! Pfui! The next are expressive of admiration: O! ah! ey! Of surprise, in a small degree: Hum; in a greater degree: Ah! ha!—Ha! ha! when you have found out, or unravelled a thing: either denoting surprise, or satisfaction.—He! and holla! are used for calling to a person. Other words are em-

ployed, in the capacity of interjections, such as, *Gracious Heaven! Good God!*—but, though they are exclamations proceeding from our feelings, they must not be confounded with those simple sounds, which properly belong to this class. They may be called *compound interjections*, and be said to contain an association of ideas, however rapid, which does not apply to the *simple interjections*.*

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* Compare in the Exercises, p. 209, note 3.

GERMAN GRAMMAR.

PART II.

Containing:

THE SYNTAX.

HAVING gone through the parts of speech, we arrive at the second division of grammar, which is called *the Syntax*. In this, the subjects that were separately expounded before, are brought into contact with each other. First of all, we shall observe their mutual influence; and the relation they bear to one another, when placed together. It will be seen that in those, which are susceptible of variations, certain modifications take place. Words either agree with, or govern, one another. The agreement consists in this, that they are put in the same gender, number, case, person, tense. And one word is said to govern the other, when, by the power of the former, the latter must necessarily assume a particular shape; for example, a certain case in declension, or such and such a mood, in conjugation. Therefore, the agreement and government of words will constitute the *First Chapter* of the Syntax. The *Second* will contain a collection of peculiarities, which are not embraced by the first chapter. And lastly, in the *Third Chapter*, we shall speak of the order and arrangement of words, in a sentence.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE AGREEMENT, AND GOVERNMENT OF WORDS.

Containing:

1. *The Article, Noun, and Pronoun.*
2. *The Verb, and Participle.*
3. *The Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, Interjection.*

SECTION I.

ARTICLE, NOUN, AND PRONOUN.

The Article.

Rule.—The Article, whether definite or indefinite must agree with the noun it belongs to, in case, number, and gender.

It can only be joined to a substantive. If it stands before an adjective, it either refers to a substantive preceding, or following; or turns the adjective into a substantive.* Consequently, the agreement of the article is with a noun substantive.

The Definite Article distinguishes, or determines the word, to which it is prefixed.—It is not every where required, but omitted in the following instances:

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* See p. 197. IX.

1. Before the vocative case, because, when a person, or any other object, is spoken to, it is by this circumstance sufficiently marked.

2. Before the name of the Supreme Being, Gott, God. But when a heathen deity is signified, the article is used; der Gott, plural, die Götter.

3. Before proper names of persons: as, Cäſer, Alexander. In the oblique cases, however, it is employed for the purpose of declension.* And sometimes it also precedes the nominative, in speaking familiarly of a person: as, der Kant, Kant; der Jones, Jones; der Käſtner Kästner.

4. Before names of towns and countries, where it is not even admitted in the oblique cases: as, London; von London, of London. England; von England, of England. There are, however, some names of countries, which are never expressed without the article: as, die Turkey, Turkey; die Wallachey, Wallachia; die Schweitz, Switzerland; die Lauſitz, Lusatia; and a few more.

5. The definite article does not stand before certain words, denoting the quarters of the globe: Oſten, East; Weſten, West; Süden, South; Norden, North; and the synonymous terms, Morgen, Abend, Mittag, Mitternacht.

6. It is suppressed before titles, when these are placed after the proper names: as, Georg, König von England,

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* See p. 170.

und Churfürst von Hannover, George, King of England, and Prince Elector of Hanover. Johann Ramus, Doctor der Rechte, John Ramus, Doctor of Laws.—Sometimes likewise, when the title is put before the name: as, König Georg, King George; Kaiser Franz, Emperour Francis: Fürst Potemkin, Prince Potemkin; Doctor Luther, Professor Sanderson. And even in the oblique cases: as, König Friedrich's Feldzüge, King Frederick's campaigns; Doctor Luther's Gelehrsamkeit, Doctor Luther's erudition.

7. In the language of the law, a few appellatives occur without the article, which properly ought to have it. Such are Beklagter, defendant; Kläger, plaintiff; Inhaber, holder, proprietor; Appellant, he that appeals; Supplicant, petitioner.

8. It is left out before some other expressions, which, in English, would require the article. For example: Ueberbringer dieses, *the* bearer of this; in bester Ordnung, in *the* best order; vor Endigung des Schauspieles, before *the* conclusion of the drama. To which may be added the phrases, ich habe es in Händen, I have it in my hands; ich habe es vor Augen, I have it before my eyes. Before Händen and Augen, some determining word, either the article, or (as in English) a pronoun, ought to be inserted; but custom has justified the omission.

9. When a word is put after the genitive case, which it governs, it cannot have an article. This is the same in English, as in German. For example: Werther's Leiden, Werther's sufferings. The genitive, Werther's stands before the word, by which it is governed, conse-

quently, the latter can have no article. So, Johnson's Werke, Johnson's works. Des Vaters Haus, the father's house; Haus without an article.

10. Several substantives of the same gender, number, and case, following, the article is prefixed to the first, and generally understood before the others: as in this example, die Güte, Liebe und Nachsicht der Mutter, the goodness, affection, and indulgence of the mother. These three substantives are of the same gender, number, and case; therefore, one article is sufficient for all. Thus it is before two adjectives: as, die reichste und angenehmste Belehrung, the most rich and agreeable instruction. But when the gender, number, or case, is different, the article must be adapted to each substantive: as, der Tod, die Auferstehung, und das Leben, death, resurrection, and life. Here the genders differ, and the repetition of the article, accordingly, is necessary. Two, or more, substantives being joined by und, and serving as a title, or superscription, the article is commonly put before each, though they should be of the same gender, number, and case: as, der Rabe und der Fuchs, the raven and the fox. This is done for the purpose of distinctness.

The English and German languages agree, for the most part, in the foregoing observations: but in the following there is a diversity.

1. The English leave out the article before words that convey a general idea, or have a comprehensive meaning. The Germans, on the other hand, employ the article. For example: die Natur ist die beste Lehrerinn, nature is the best instructress. Der Mensch ist sterblich, man is mortal;

das menschliche Leben ist kurz, human life is short; die Tugend führt zum, or zu dem Glücke, virtue leads to happiness; das Laster stürzt seine Anhänger ins Verderben, vice plunges its followers into perdition; die Beredsamkeit ist mächtig, eloquence is powerful; die Dichtkunst ist bezaubernd, poetry is enchanting, Here the words, which produce the general sentence, *nature, man, human life, virtue, vice, eloquence, poetry,* are, in German, accompanied with the article. This is also peculiar to other tongues, for instance, the French, and Italian.

2. The English have certain expressions, without the article, where the German language cannot dispense with it. Such are, *Government,* die Regierung; *History,* die Geschichte; *Holy Writ,* die heilige Schrift. *Saint Paul, Saint Peter,* der Heilige Paulus, der Heilige Petrus; unless *Saint* be rendered by the Latin word *Sanct, (Sanctus),* which is sometimes done: as, *Sanct Paulus, Sanct Petrus.*—They omit it before *most:* as, *most of his cotemporaries,* where the Germans say, die meisten.—*In town,* in der Stadt; *in church,* in der Kirche; *to go to church,* in die Kirche gehen.

3. The English put the article before some proper names, where the Germant leave it out: as, *The* East Indies, Ostindien; *the* West Indies, Westindien.—The article is, in German, dispensed with before certain adjectives, and participles, where it would be required, in English. Such are: ersterer, *the* former; letzterer, *the* latter; besagter, *the* one aforesaid; erwähnter, gedachter, *the* one mentioned; genannter, *the* one named; folgender, *the* following.

4. They place the definite article always after the word *Half*, when followed by a substantive: as, *Half the number;* whereas, in German, the article stands before it, die halbe Zahl. The English article frequently stands after *Both:* as, *Both the Brothers;* the Germans either put the article before beide: as, die beiden Brüder, which is the third form of the adjective; or omit it, as, beide Brüder, which is the second form.

5. In English the preterite participle is, sometimes, put after the substantive, and the article is then omitted. For example, *Paradise Lost, Paradise Regained.* In German, that participle always precedes the substantive, and the article is retained, as in these examples: Das verlorene Paradies, das wieder gewonnene Paradies.

The Indefinite Article is nearly employed in the same manner, as in English. In some phrases it is made use of, where the English assume the definite article. This is done in speaking of collective bodies, attended with certain epithets, or titles: as, eine hohe Obrigkeit, the worshipful magistrates; ein hoch weiser Rath, the most learned senate; eine löbliche Universität, the honourable university; ein geehrtes Publicum, the honoured publick.—In the English language, the indefinite article has its place after *half*, and *such:* as, *Half a year, such a man.* In German, it stands before these adjectives: as, ein halbes Jahr, ein solcher Mann. Instead of ein solcher, you will sometimes find, so ein, (or, solch ein): for instance, so ein Mann, (or, solch ein Mann), the same as, ein solcher Mann, such a man, which may be thought to resemble the English construction.—The English put the indefinite

article before, *few, hundred, thousand,* as, *a few, a hundred, a thousand* (pounds); in German, the corresponding words are used without that article.

Noun Substantive.

Rule I.—Two or more substantives, referring to th same object, or forming an apposition, as it is called, are put in the same case: as, der König, unser Freund und Vater, the king, our friend and father. The two last substantives relate to the same object with the first, and therefore stand in the same case, viz. the nominative. Wir lieben den König, unsern Freund und Vater, we love the king, our friend and father. Here they are again in the same case, but in the accusative, governed by the transitive verb lieben.

Rule II.—One substantive governs another in the genitive case, signifying possession, quality, or some other relation: for example, das Haus meines Freundes, the house of my friend: die Tugend des Vaters, und das Laster des Sohnes, the virtue of the father, and the vice of the son. The English use the preposition *of*, to express those relations.

An exception is made by the words of measure and quantity. These do not demand the genitive case, though *of*, is put in English: for example, zehn Ellen Tuch, ten yards *of* cloth; zwey Fässer Wein, two casks *of* wine; ein Regiment Soldaten, a regiment of soldiers.* The genitive,

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* Compare what is said p. 168.

however, takes place, when the substantives, that follow those words of measure or quantity, are joined with a pronoun: as, zehn Ellen dieses Tuches, ten yards of *this* cloth; zwey Fässer jenes Weines, two casks of *that* wine.* The adjective also renders the genitive sometimes proper: as, ein Regiment guter Soldaten, a regiment of good soldiers.

The genitive case is frequently, supplied by the preposition von, of, and the dative following. This is done,

1. When the article is excluded: as, der Schein von Redlichkeit, the appearance of honesty; der nördliche Theil von England, the northern part of England, die Grenzen von Frankreich, the boundaries of France. And therefore,

2. When quality, condition, proportion, are implied: as, ein Mann von Verstande, a man of sense; ein Herr von hohem Adel, a gentleman of high nobility; von alter Herkunft, of ancient origin; eine Reise von zehn Meilen, a journey of ten miles; ein Schiff von zwey hundert Tonnen, a ship of two hundred tons; eine Summe von zwanzig Pfunden, a sum of twenty pounds; ein Mann von achtzig Jahren, a man of eighty years.

3. When the material is mentioned, of which any thing is made: as, eine Uhr von Golde, the same as, eine goldene Uhr, a gold watch; ein Becher von Silber, a silver cup; ein Stuhl von Elfenbein, an ivory chair.

4. Before the indefinite article, to denote character,

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* See p. 168.

as, ein Abscheu von einem Menschen, a horrour of a man; ein Vorbild von einem ehrlichen Manne, a pattern of an honest man; ein Muster von einem guten Sohne, a model of a good son; ein Schurke von einem Bedienten, a knave of a servant; ein Teufel von einem Weibe, a devil of a woman.

5. To prevent a repetition of the same endings: as, die Ursache von dem sonderbaren Betragen des Mannes, the reason of the singular conduct of the man—instead of, die Ursache des sonderbaren Betragens des Mannes.

Sometimes it is indifferent, whether von be made use of, or the genitive case: for example, den Schein von Redlichkeit haben, or, den Schein der Redlichkeit haben, to have the appearance of honesty; der nördliche Theil von England, or, der nördliche Theil Englands, the northern part of England; einer von meinen Freunden, or, einer meiner Freunde, one of my friends. But where the genitive is not distinguished by the article, or the termination, von must be employed. Before the article, it is often superfluous: as, den Schein von der Tugend haben, to have the show of virtue. Der Tugend, as the genitive case, would be sufficient, without that preposition.

Let it be observed, that the words von and *of*, are here mentioned, as being placed between two substantives: nothing is said of their other capacities, as prepositions.

Rule III.—The situation of the genitive is after the word, by which it is governed.

Sometimes it precedes the governing word, in which circumstance the latter loses its article: for example, des Lebens Freude, life's joy; for, die Freude des Lebens, the joy

of life. It may happen, that the governing word, though put after the genitive, keeps the article; but then the genitive is deprived of it: as, Volks die Menge, a multitude of people; Freude die Fülle, abundance of joy. This, however, is not to be extended beyond the phrases established by custom.

The position of the genitive, before the governing word, should be easy and unaffected: otherwise it is best, to leave that case in its natural place. Thus two, or more, genitive cases, when transposed, produce a heavy and unharmonious sound, as in this example: des großen Philosophen Kants Leben, which had better be, das Leben des großen Philosophen Kant, the life of the great philosopher Kant. And it is worse, when of two genitives, before a third word, one governs the other: as, des Ritters der Sonne Abendtheuer, the knight's of the Sun adventures; for, the adventures of the knight of the Sun.

Noun Adjective.

Rule I.—The adjective must agree with its substantive, in gender, number, and case.

This rule applies not only to the adjective in its first, or positive, state, but also to the degrees of comparison. The substantive is sometimes understood, yet the agreement remains: for example, der gute Mann, und der böse (understand Mann) the good man, and the bad (man); den zwölften dieses Monathes, the twelfth of this month (supply Tag, day.)

Rule II.—The place of the adjective is before the substantive.

Except:

1. When it is joined to a proper name, as a title of distinction: as, Friedrich der Kühne, Frederick the Bold; Alexander der Große, Alexander the Great.

2. When it assumes the function of a relative sentence: for example, der Held, mächtig im Felde und weise im Rathe, the hero powerful in the field, and wise in the council. This stands for, welcher mächtig im Felde und weise im Rathe ist.

3. Adjectives, derived from names of places, and countries, are, in certain phrases put after the substantives: as, zehn Pfund Englisch, ten pounds English; zwanzig Mark Lübeckisch, twenty marks Lubeck; hundert Fuß Rheinländisch, one hundred feet Rhenish.

Rule III.—Some adjectives govern cases.

1. The following the genitive: Bedürftig, in want of; benöthigt, in need of; bewußt, conscious (with the reciprocal dative, and the genitive of the object: as, Ich bin mir der Sache nicht bewußt); eingedenk, mindful; fähig, capable of, (it is also joined with the preposition zu); froh, glad, satisfied, (also with the prep. über, and the accusative); gewahr, informed of, aware of, (also with the accusative; it generally occurs with the verb werden, to become, as, er wurde der Gefahr, [genitive], or die Gefahr, [accusative], gewahr, he perceived the danger); gewiß, certain; gewohnt, accustomed to; kundig, skilled in, experienced in; los, free from, rid of; mächtig, in possession of; müde, tired of; quitt, rid of; satt, tired of; schuldig, guilty; theilhaft, partaking of; überdrüssig, tired

with; verdächtig, suspicious, suspected; verlustig, having forfeited, or lost; voll, full of, (also with von);* werth, worth, deserving; würdig, worthy.

2. The next are followed by a dative case: Aehnlich, like, resembling; angemessen, adapted, suitable; angenehm, agreeable; bekannt, known to; bequem, convenient; bange, anxious, fearful, (as, mir ist bange, I am fearful; beschwerlich, troublesome; dienlich, serviceable; furchtbar, formidable; gehorsam, obedient; gemäß, suited to; getreu, faithful; gewogen, inclined to, favourable; gleich, like; nahe, near; verwandt, related to; nöthig, necessary; nützlich, useful; schädlich, hurtful; zuträglich, conducive, useful: and others, signifying advantage, or disadvantage.—Prepositions may be employed in many instances, instead of the mere dative case, such as für, for; gegen, towards, against; zu, to, &c.

3. Those which imply measure, weight, age, value, generally with a numeral preceeding, require the accusative, and are put after their case. Of this kind are: Lang, long; breit, broad; hoch, high; tief, deep; groß, great; schwer, heavy; alt, old; werth, worth; schuldig, indebted, owing. For example: zehn Fuß lang, ten feet long; zwölf Pfund schwer, weighing twelve pounds; funfzig Jahr alt, fifty years old; drey Thaler werth, worth three dollars;

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* Sometimes it seems, as if the substantive, dependent on voll, remains in the nominative, after it: as, voll Dankbarkeit, full of gratitude. Herder, Zerstr. Bl. 3te Samml. p. 210. Thus voll Muth, instead of (Muthes) full of courage.

er ist viel Geld schuldig, he owes a great deal of money. Lang, joined in this manner, to words, noting time, expresses duration: as, zehn Jahr lang, for ten years; eine Zeit lang, for a time.

Observations. (1) The cardinal numbers, and the words viel, much, or many, and wenig, little, or few, govern the genitive; and are always put after it. They are frequently combined with the personal pronouns: as, unser zwölf, twelve of us; euer zwanzig, twenty of you; ihrer dreißig, thirty of them; unser viele, many of us; ihrer wenig, few of them.*

(2) The word *All* has, in English, commonly, the definite article after it: as, *All* the *world*—All, in German, is without the article: as, alle Welt, all the world; alles Geld, all the money. There is only one instance, in which the article is required, namely, before possessive pronouns, when used substantively: as, alle die Meinigen, all my friends; alles das Unsrige, all we possess. And it may stand before adjectives, which are employed as substantives: as, alle die Guten, all the good people; alles das Böse, all the evil. Otherwise it is not necessary, except when a relative follows, nor even then always: as, alle die nachtheiligen Folgen, welche daraus entstanden, all the disadvantageous consequences, which arose from it. The truth is that in the instances first adduced, the article should not be considered as belonging to all, but to the possessive pronouns.—All sometimes follows the word, to which it belongs: for example, die Beyspiele alle, all

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* Compare pages 195, and 226.

the examples; die Thränen alle, all the tears; von den übrigen allen, of all the rest; dieses alles, all this, for alles dieses; das alles, for alles das, all that. It is always put after the personal, and relative pronouns: as, wir alle, all of us; sie alle, all of them; die Leute, welche alle zugegen waren, the people who all were present.

The Pronoun.

Rule I.—Pronouns agree with the substantives, to which they are prefixed, in gender, number and case; and the relative corresponds with the antecedent substantive, to which it belongs, in gender, and number, the case depending upon other circumstances.

Rule II.—The pronouns are put before the substantives, with which they are joined, never after them. This applies particularly to pronouns possessive, and demonstrative. In Vater Unser, our father, which is the beginning of the Lord's prayer, it might seem, as if the possessive were put after the substantive, Vater; but Unser, there, is the genitive plural of the first personal pronoun, in imitation of the Greek.* The personal pronouns are not combined with substantives, as the others are, but only bear a reference to them, and, in that reference, they answer to them in number, and the third also in gender. This is likewise to be observed of pronouns demonstrative and interrogative, when they stand by themselves. The connexion between the relative, and its antecedent, is of a similar description.

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* See p. 226.

Observations.—1. Speaking of any inanimate object, the English use the neuter of the third personal pronoun, *it*, all such objects being considered as of the neuter gender; the Germans, having three distinct genders, even for lifeless things, apply the pronouns accordingly. Hier ist ein neuer Hut, here is a new hat—er ist sehr fein, (he) it is very fine; wo haben Sie ihn gekauft? where did you buy (him) it? Hut is of the masculine gender; therefore, the masculine pronoun appertains to it. So, wie gefällt Ihnen diese Witterung? how do you like this weather? sie ist sehr unangenehm, (she) it is very unpleasant. The personal pronoun is in the feminine gender, on account of the substantive. Das Pferd geht recht gut, aber es ist zu hitzig, the horse goes very well, but *it* is too hot. The neuter, es, it, because das Pferd, is of that gender.

2. The reciprocal pronoun, in the dative case, frequently supplies the office of a personal pronoun; as, ich habe mir das Bein verrückt, I have sprained *my* leg: er hat sich den Hals abgeschnitten, he has cut *his* throat.

3. A demonstrative pronoun is sometimes preferred to the third personal, especially in the oblique cases, both for the sake of distinction, and of sound. When a nearer object is alluded to, dieser is put; when a distant one, jener. Derselbe is frequently substituted for the personal pronoun, without any particular modification. It is chiefly employed in the genitive and dative, in speaking of inanimate objects. When assigned to persons, it occasionally is expressive of respect. Seine Königliche Majestät haben einen Befehl ergehen lassen, worin Dieselben einen Fasttag verordnen, his Royal Majesty has issued an order,

in which (the same) he commands the keeping of a fast-day. Dieselben gives to the sentence a more respectable form, than Er, he, or Sie, they, would do. Hence this pronoun constitutes a term of address, for Sie, you; and when relating to individuals of high rank, it is commonly attended with certain epithets, as, Hochdieselben, Höchstdieselben, Allerhöchstdieselben; where hoch, high, höchst, highest, allerhöchst, highest of all, mark the degree of nobility, belonging to the person addressed.

4. It has been observed, in the first part, that the neuter of the third personal often begins a sentence, in connexion with a noun of a different gender, and number: for example. Es ist ein Mann, it is a man; es ist eine Frau, it is a woman. Es, here corresponds with a masculine, and a feminine. However, the English language admits the same mode of expression, in these instances. The peculiarity of the German appears in the following: es sind viele Menschen da, there are many people: es kömmt der König, the king is coming; es ruft der Vater, the father is calling; es kommen Leute, people are coming. This frequently answers to the English *there:* as, *There is a quarrel in the house*, es ist ein Streit im Hause, *there is a doubt amoug the learned*, es ist ein Zweifel unter den Gelehrten. Sometimes, that way of opening a sentence is calculated to give it more effect, than if the subject itself were placed at the head. For, the attention of the hearer is raised by the expectation of the word, which is to follow. It is, therefore, very usual with the subjunctive mood to convey a forcible sentiment: for instance, es lebe der König, long live the king; es komme mir keiner zu nahe, let no one approach me. The neuters of the demon-

strative pronouns are used in a similar manner: as, dieß ist mein Freund, this is my friend: jenes mein Feind, that my enemy; das sind Soldaten, those are soldiers.

5. The genitive case of the demonstrative pronoun, der, die, das, viz. dessen, deren, dessen, in the singular, and derer, or deren, in the plural, is put instead of the third possessive, to avoid confusion: for example, Cicero ließ die Mitverschworenen des Catilina in dessen Hause ergreifen. Cicero ordered the accomplices of Catiline to be seized in his (Catiline's) house. Here dessen stands for seinem, and prevents, at once, all misconception; but seinem, his, might be referred to Cicero. Der Consul wandte sich an den Senat, weil er auf dessen Muth traute, the consul applied to the senate, because he trusted to its (the senate's) courage. If it were seine, his, (Senat being of the masculine gender), it would be uncertain, whether the courage of the consul, or that of the senate, was to be understood. Die Einwohner überließen den Engländern die Vertheidigung der Stadt, weil sie im Falle eines Angriffes auf deren Entschlossenheit rechneten, the inhabitants resigned the defence of the city to the English, because, in case of an attack, they reckoned on *their* resolution: namely, the resolution of the English. By means of deren, it is immediately clear, whose resolution is meant: whereas, if ihre, their, had been employed, it might relate to the inhabitants as well as to the English.*—That genitive, moreover, counter-

* This is an advantage, which the German language has over the English, and others. It resembles the distinction, which is made in Latin, between *suus* and

acts the repetition of the same possessive. It is also common to put it, instead of the latter, in reference to inanimate objects: for example, der Feind hat die Stadt erobert und deren Einwohner gezüchtigt, the enemy has conquered the town, and chastised its inhabitants. Deren, here stands for the possessive ihre. Der menschliche Körper und dessen Verrichtungen, the human body, and its functions. Dessen instead of seine. As the genitive of the third personal, Es, is not usual, dessen supplies the vacancy: as, ich bin dessen überdrüssig, I am tired of it.

6. The English make use of the pronoun *that*, not expressing the substantive, to which it refers, but understanding it: as, "Have you seen my house?" "No, but I have seen *that* of your brother." This turn of expression seems not to have belonged to the German idiom, but only to have been introduced into it, from foreign tongues, of late years. The Germans would rather repeat the substantive, and say: Haben Sie mein Haus gesehen? Nein, aber ich habe das Haus Ihres Bruders gesehen. Have you seen my house? No, but I have seen *the house* of your brother. It is, however, become pretty current with recent authors.

7. The manner, in which the two relative pronouns, welcher and der, are used, has been described in the first part; in addition to which, it may here be remarked, that the genitive of der is, in general, preferred to that of

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ejus, though it is not absolutely the same. The Swedes Danes, and Dutch avail themselves of a similar discrimination.

welcher: as, der Mann, dessen ich gedachte, the man I mentioned; die Ehre, deren er so würdig ist, the honour of which he is so deserving: die Männer, derer Verdienste so groß sind, those men, whose merits are so great.—Der must be made use of, when a vocative case precedes: as, O Gott, der du alles mit Weisheit regierest, O God, who governest all things with wisdom. The repetition of the personal pronoun, which, in such instances, is necessary, after the relative der, gives force to the sentence.—The particle als is sometimes found before welcher, as a mere expletive; die Fremden, als welche hier angekommen sind, the strangers, which have arrived here. Now and then it may have an explanatory capacity, similar to the Latin *quippe qui*, but generally speaking, it is superfluous, and improper.—The relative cannot be conveniently joined with the imperative mood; it sounds uncouth: for example, welches siehe, which see; better, siehe dieß, see this.

SECTION II.

VERB AND PARTICIPLE.

Persons and Numbers.

Rule I.—The verb must agree with the subject nominative, in number and person.

Observations.—1. When the verb belongs to two, or more substantives, of the singular number, it should itself be in the plural; as, Haß, Liebe und Eifersucht sind heftige Leidenschaften der menschlichen Seele, hatred, love, and jealousy, are violent passions of the human soul. Some-

times, the verb stands in the singular, after two or more substantives: for example, Mord und Verwüstung herrschet im Lande, murder and destruction reign in the land. Though it would, in such instances, perhaps be better always to employ the plural, yet not only the custom of the language, but grammatical reason also justifies the singular. It is a sort of elliptical form; the verb should have been repeated at every substantive: but it is only expressed with one, and to be understood with the other. It should be thus supplied, Mord herrschet im Lande, und Verwüstung herrschet im Lande.

2. When the subjects are of different persons, the first person is preferred to the second; and the second to the third: consequently, the verb will be in the first person plural, when one of the subject nominatives is of the first person, and in the second, if there is a second, and no first personal: for example, ich, du und dein Bruder, or, du, dein Bruder und ich wollen spatzieren gehen, you, your brother, and I will take a walk. Wollen is in the first person plural, because one of the subjects (du, dein Bruder und ich) happens to be in the first person, namely, ich. Du, dein Bruder und deine Schwester, seyd heute eingeladen worden, you, your brother, and your sister, have been invited to-day. Seyd, is the second person of the verb, on account of du, the second personal pronoun, which takes the lead, in absence of the first.

3. The verb is put in the plural number, with a subject nominative of the singular, in titles of address: as, euere Excellenz haben befohlen, your Excellency has ordered; Euere Majestät geruhen, your Majesty is graciously pleased;

Ihre Gnaden bemerken, your Lordship observes. In the above, haben, geruhen, bemerken, are in the plural number. Persons of title, or rank, are sometimes spoken of, in this form, even when absent; as, der Herr Baron sind hier gewesen, my Lord Baron has been here; der Herr Graf haben es mir gesagt, my Lord Count has told me. This is, indeed, carrying the point of respect and politeness very far, but it is by no means uncommon.

Rule II.—The personal pronouns are always to be expressed, unless some other word is substituted for them.

Observations.—1. It is of course understood, that when a subject nominative accompanies the verb, no additional pronoun is wanted. Therefore, in the third person, the pronoun is not required, when a substantive, in the nominative case is already with the verb: for example, der Mann schreibt, the man writes, where it would be wrong to say, der Mann er schreibt, the man *he* writes: one nominative being sufficient. In the same manner, when you address a person with a title, the second pronoun personal would be superfluous: as, Ihre Gnaden beweisen mir sehr viele Güte, your Lordship shows me great kindness; where the insertion of a pronoun, after *your Lordship*, would be improper.

2. The imperative mode takes no pronoun in the second person, except for the sake of emphasis, and distinction. But the third person cannot be used without the pronoun, not even when it stands for the second, in speaking to any one. See the Conjugation of Verbs.

3. When two or more verbs, of the same person, meet together, one pronoun, or substantive, may serve for them all: for example, ich lese und schreibe, I read and write; er kam zu mir, ging aber bald wieder weg, he came to me, but soon went away again; wir haben Ihre Einladung erhalten, danken für Ihre Güte und werden uns das Vergnügen machen, Sie zu besuchen, we have received your invitation, thank you for your kindness, and will do ourselves the pleasure of calling upon you. In these instances, the pronoun is only employed once, before the first verb. It is the same, when a substantive, or proper name, is joined to the verb: as, der Feind kam und verheerte das Land, the enemy came, and desolated the country.

4. The first personal pronoun is sometimes omitted in old, and formal language, particularly in addressing persons of superior rank: as, Euere Gnaden kann hiermit versichern, I can herewith assure your Lordship; dero Schreiben habe erhalten, I have received your letter. This notion seems to have sprung from an imaginary kind of reverence, by which he that spoke, or wrote, was too modest to mention his own person, at the same time with the one spoken to. But, thanks to common sense, those Gothick ideas are now abandoned.

Tenses.

Here, a few things only are to be remarked.

1. The preterimperfect tense is, in German, not commonly employed to express an action quite passed, and unconnected with any other. For this purpose the preterperfect is, in general, appropriated, though the Eng-

lish prefer the preterimperfect; for example, Ich habe das nie gesehen, I never saw it; ich bin nie da gewesen, I never was there; sind Sie nie in Berlin gewesen, were you never at Berlin? When the action is connected with another, that happened at the same time, or in consequence of the former, the preterimperfect is proper. Da wir hier ankamen, so schickten wir unsern Bedienten zurück, when we arrived here, we sent back our servant. *We arrived and sent back*, are two actions connected with, and following out of, one another. Such a connexion of actions is the subject of historical narration. The preterimperfect is, therefore, peculiarly adapted to that sort of composition. Still the Germans, even in such a connexion, sometimes put the preterperfect tense, though the preterimperfect would be preferable.

2. In historical style, the present tense is, frequently, substituted for the past imperfect, to enliven the representation. This is sometimes done in English, but more seldom, than in German.

3. The present tense is occasionally applied to a future action. Ich reise morgen ab, I (shall) set off to-morrow; in drey Wochen sehen Sie mich wieder hier, in three weeks time you (will) see me here again; ich komme gleich wieder, I (will) come back immediately.

4. It is proper, that an inaccuracy should be noticed, in this place which very often is to be met with, even in respectable writers. The tenses that bear a reference to one another, should correspond, as they do in Latin: but this is not always attended to. In this instance, man

glaubte, daß es wahr sey, they *thought* that it *was* true, they do *not* correspond, in the German, which is a fault; for, glaubte, is the preterimperfect, and sey, the present. They should both be imperfects, as they are, in English, *thought—was;* thus, man glaubte, daß es wahr wäre. Another example: Er behauptet ich wäre da gewesen, he *maintains*, that *I have* been there. This is again wrong, behauptet being the present tense, and wäre the preterimperfect, which should be changed into sey, in order to make it correspond with the foregoing present, behauptet: for I here consider wäre by itself, not as it forms the compound tense, wäre gewesen, er behauptet, ich sey da gewesen. Farther, Er sagt, dadurch habe er die Gelegenheit verloren, es wäre aber nachher einem andern gelungen, he *says* that he *has*, by that means, lost the opportunity, but that another *has* afterwards succeeded: habe and wäre er, are at variance; the latter should be sey.

The Moods.

THE *Indicative*, and *Imperative* require no elucidation.

Rule I.—The *Subjunctive*, or as the Germans call it, the *Conjunctive*, is, or ought to be used:

1. When a state of uncertainty is implied. It is, therefore, to be found after some conjunctions, which convey that idea. Such are, wenn, if; als wenn, as if; ob, whether; damit, in order that; daß, that. But the subjunctive moodmust not be supposed to be governed by those conjunctions. It solely depends upon the uncertainty, or doubtfulness, with which the action of the verb is

conceived. It appears, for instance, that the subjunctive follows after daß, when any one of these verbs precedes: Bitten, to beg; rathen, to advise; ermahnen, to exhort; besorgen, to apprehend; fürchten, to fear; scheinen, to appear, to seem; bedingen, to make conditions; wünschen, to wish; wollen, to desire; zweifeln, to doubt, &c. For, when we *beg, advise, exhort, apprehend, fear, wish, desire*, that a thing be done, a degree of uncertainty exists, as to the event. On this ground, the subjunctive mood is employed, in German. This is farther manifest from the verb sagen, to say, and similar ones, as, antworten, to answer; behaupten, to maintain, &c. When that, which is said, or maintained, remains, in our idea, liable to doubt, the subjunctive should follow after daß: for example: man sagt mir, daß es gedonnert habe, they tell me that there has been thunder; unser Freund behauptet, daß dieß ein fruchtbares Jahr seyn werde, our friend maintains, that this will be a fruitful year. Here, I am told something, and a person has maintained, that such and such an event will take place. But in as far as I do not regard these things as perfectly certain, and as there may be a doubt about them, it is proper that the notion should be expressed in the subjunctive mood. When, on the other hand, the idea is considered as positive, and unquestionable, the indicative must be made use of: for instance, when a person speaks of himself: as, ich behaupte, daß es wahr ist, I maintain that it is true. Here, the subjunctive would be wrong, because the notion is strongly affirmative. If what a person maintains were not certain, in his own conception, he should look for another expression, such as, *I believe, I think*. Ich weiß, daß er das

Geld bekommen hat, I know that he has received the money; the indicative, for the same reason.—The conjunction wenn, if, does not require the subjunctive mood after it, except when the sentence to which it belongs is connected with one that contains a conditional future; as, ich würde es thun, wenn es möglich wäre, I should do it, if it were possible. Here, wäre, the verb belonging to wenn, is in the subjunctive mood, because the preceding sentence contains a conditional future, *I should do it.**—It is evident, that the subjunctive rests upon the opinion, that it is formed of the certainty or uncertainty, in the action of the verb. It is a natural consequence of this, that, in some circumstances, it may be questioned, whether the indicative or the subjunctive be more proper; the decision will proceed from the point of view, in which the sentence is contemplated.—The subjunctive is, sometimes, unnecessarily recurred to, because the condition, on which it depends, is not always sufficiently understood.

2. The subjunctive mood takes place, when daß, and wenn, are to be supplied: as, er glaubt, es sey nicht möglich, he thinks *(that)* it is not possible; man sagt, der Kaiser habe Frieden gemacht, they say (that) the Emperour has made peace. In those examples, the indicative might also pass, without censure. But not so, when the verb, to which wenn, *if*, is to be supplied, stands at the very head of the sentence; as in the following: Wäre ich an Ihrer Stelle, were I in your place, instead of, wenn ich an

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* See Exercises, p. 122. note 1.

Ihrer Stelle wäre, if I were in your place; hätte er die Schätze des Crösus, had he the treasures of Crœsus, for, wenn er die Schätze des Crösus hätte, if he had the treasures of Crœsus. Thus, sollte sich das ereignen, should that happen; sollte er nicht kommen, should he not come: for, *if*, that should happen, if he should not come.—Sometimes the conjunction wenn, *if*, is to be understood before the present tense, though this tense can, under those circumstances, not be put in the subjunctive, but must be in the indicative mood. Examples: Bist du reich, so gib viel; bist du arm, so gib dein Weniges gerne, *if* thou *art* rich, give much; *if* thou *art* poor, give thy little cheerfully. Hörest du was böses, das sage nicht nach, *if* thou *hearest* any bad, do not repeat it.. *Ecclesiasticus.*

3. It frequently stands in a potential signification, expressing a wish: as, der Himmel gebe es, may heaven grant it; Gott behüte, God forbid;—or a permission, and concession: as, er gehe wohin er wolle, let him go where he pleases;—or a supposition: as, es wäre besser, wenn wir Ihren Rath befolgt hätten, it would be better, if we had followed your advice: die Franzosen hätten die Schlacht nicht gewonnen, wenn sie nicht eine so große Uebermacht an Leuten gehabt hätten, the French would not have gained the battle, if they had not had such superior numbers;—surprise, or wonder, Hätte ichs doch nicht geglaubt! I should not have thought it!*

Rule II.—The Infinitive Mood occurs either *without* the preposition zu, or *with* it.

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* Lessing, die Juden.

A. Without, zu.

1. When it stands by itself, and unconnected, for example, in a vocabulary: as, lieben, to love; sehen, to see.

2. When it is in the room of a substantive, either as the subject, or as the object: as, versprechen und erfüllen sind zwey verschiedene Sachen, to promise and to fulfil are two different things; das nenne ich fechten, that I call to fight, or fighting; das heiße ich grausam verfahren, that I call to act cruelly, or acting cruelly.

3. After the verbs: können, mögen, lassen, dürfen, sollen, wollen, müssen; and werden, when it is the auxiliary to the future tense.

4. After the verbs: Heißen, to bid; helfen, to help; lehren, to teach; lernen, to learn; hören, to hear; sehen, to see; fühlen, to feel. For example: ich hieß ihn gehen, I bid him go; er hilft mir schreiben, he helps me to write, that is, he assists me in writing; der Vater lehrt das Kind lesen, the father teaches the child to read; wir lernen tanzen, we learn to dance; ich höre sie singen, I hear them sing; ich sehe ihn kommen, I see him come, or coming; er fühlte sein Blut gähren, he felt his blood boil, or boiling.—After some of those verbs, the English more commonly use the participle; the Germans constantly employ the infinitive. Lehren, and lernen sometimes admit zu, before the infinitive that follows them.

5. Some verbs are joined to an infinitive, without zu, in particular phrases. They are:

Bleiben, to remain—with the infinitive, it signifies con-

tinuance of locality; as, er bleibt liegen, he continues lying; er bleibt sitzen, he continues sitting, he keeps his seat, he does not move from his seat; er bleibt stehen, he continues standing. Thus with stecken, to stick fast; hangen, to hang; knien, to kneel; kleben, to adhere, to stick.

Fahren, to go in a carriage, with spatzieren: as, ich fahre spatzieren, I drive out for exercise, for an airing.

Finden, to find, is occasionally followed by the infinitive, where the English put the participle. Er fand sie schlafen, he found them sleeping, or asleep; ich fand das Buch auf dem Tische liegen, I found the book laying upon the table. The participle might here be used, even in German.

Gehen, to go: as, ich gehe spatzieren, I take a walk; er geht schlafen, he goes to sleep, that is, he goes to bed; and with some other verbs.

Haben, to have, in these, and similar phrases: er hat gut reisen, he has good travelling; sie haben gut sprechen, you have fine talking; wir haben Geld auf Zinsen stehen, we have money standing out on interest.

Sich legen, to lay one's self down, with schlafen, to sleep: as, ich lege mich schlafen, I lay myself down to sleep.

Machen, when it signifies to cause, to occasion: as, er macht mich lachen, he makes me laugh; er macht mich weinen, he makes me cry.

Reiten, to ride on horseback, with spatzieren; as, ich reite spatzieren, I take a ride.

Thun, to do, with nichts, and als, after it: as, die Frau thut nichts als zanken, the woman does nothing but

quarrel; der Mann thut nichts als schelten, the man does nothing but scold.

B. The Infinitive with the preposition zu, to, before it:

1. After nouns, when, in English, either *to*, with the infinitive, or *of*, with the participle, is used: for example, after a substantive, Lust zu spielen, an inclination to play; das Vergnügen Sie zu sehen, the pleasure of seeing you; der Wunsch gelobt zu werden, the wish of being praised:—after an adjective, ich war froh meinen Freund wieder zu sehen, I was happy to see my friend again; müde zu stehen, tired of standing; neugierig zu wissen, curious to know; begierig zu erfahren, anxious to be informed.

2. After verbs, when purpose and design are intimated. Ich ging zu dem Manne, ihm die Sache vorzustellen und mit ihm darüber zu sprechen, I went to the man, *to* represent the thing to him, and *to* converse with him about it. And here the participle um, is frequently joined with zu, which expresses the design still more distinctly. Liebet die Tugend, um glücklich zu seyn, love virtue (for) to be happy.

3. After the following, and verbs of a similar signification: anfangen, to begin; aufhören, to cease; befehlen, to command; bitten, to beg; erwarten, to expect; hoffen, to hope; fürchten, to fear: drohen, to threaten; pflegen, to be wont; behaupten, to maintain; erkennen, to acknowledge, with the infinitive in the preterite tense, as, er erkennt sich geirrt zu haben, he acknowledges to

have been mistaken; bekennen, to confess, with the infinitive preterite, as, er bekennt das Geld erhalten zu haben, he confesses to have received the money; scheinen, to appear, to seem: wünschen, to wish; verlangen, to desire; ermangeln, to fail; erlauben, to permit; gestatten, to allow; verdienen, to deserve; wagen, to venture; haben, to have, as, ich habe Ihnen etwas zu sagen, I have something to tell you; seyn, to be: as, es ist zu fürchten, it is to be feared; wissen, to know how: as, er weiß es zu machen, he knows how to do it; and these verbs, helfen, nutzen, frommen, when they signify to be of use, to answer a purpose.

4. The preposition ohne, without, and statt or anstatt, instead of, require zu, before the infinitive. The English construe them with the participle: as, ohne zu wissen, without knowing. Fr. *sans savoir;* statt zu schlafen, instead of sleeping; anstatt zu schreiben, instead of writing.*

In English, the infinitive, with *to*, is put after some verbs, where the Germans, prefer the conjunction daß, with the indicative, or subjunctive, for example: *I knew him to be the man*, ich wußte, daß er der Mann war; *they thought me to be mistaken*, sie dachten, daß ich mich irrte; *he believed it to be true*, er glaubte, daß es wahr wäre.—The infinitive with *to*, is also employed, by the English, after words which form indirect questions, such as, *when*, *where*, *how*, *which*, *what*, *whose*, *whom*, when certain verbs, such as, *to know*, *to tell*, *to be told*, and the like, precede. For example, *you know how to write it; I will tell you what to do; teach*

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* See Exercises, p. 249, note 2.

me what to say. In German, the indicative, or subjunctive of some assisting verb, such as, muß, soll, must, ought, shall, is to be made use of: as, Sie wissen, wie Sie es schreiben müssen, you know how you must write it; ich will Ihnen sagen, was Sie thun müssen, I will tell you what you must do; lehren Sie mich, was ich sagen soll, teach me what I shall say.

The Auxiliary.

When the same auxiliary belongs to more than one verb, it need only be once employed: as, ich habe es gehört und gesehen, I have heard, and seen it: wir haben geschrieben, gelesen und gesprochen, we have written, read, and talked; der König wird von seinen Unterthanen geliebt und geehrt, the king is beloved, and honoured by his subjects. It would encumber the sentences, to have the auxiliary, more than once, in those several examples. The English coincides in this with the German language. But the latter owns a peculiarity, with which many other tongues are not acquainted; namely, that the first and second auxiliary, when placed at the end of a sentence, may be omitted. For instance, mein Freund hat mir gesagt, daß er Ihren Brief gelesen, my friend has told me, that he has read your letter. After gelesen, the auxiliary, habe, or hat, is to be understood. It would have been fully as well, if it had been expressed, though sometimes the omission has a good effect, by preventing the monotonous repetition of the same auxiliary word.* The

* The Swedes use a similar freedom.

third auxiliary, though placed at the end, can never be left out.

The Verb governing Cases of Declension.

Rule I.—The Nominative case, as the object, is required.

1. By the following verbs: Seyn, to be; werden, to become; bleiben, to remain; heißen, to be called, to bear a name; scheinen, to seem. Examples: Friedrich war ein großer König, Frederick was a great king; mein Bruder ist Soldat geworden, my brother is become a soldier; er bleibt ein Thor, wie er immer war, he remains a silly man, as he always was; dieser Mensch heißt der Oberste, this man is called the colonel; es scheint ein guter Plan, it seems a good plan. The nouns, after the verbs, are here all in the nominative case.

2. By the passive voice of such verbs, as, in the active, govern a double accusative: for instance, Nennen, to call, to name: er wird ein ehrlicher Mann genannt, he is called an honest man; heißen, to call, to name; taufen, to christen; das Kind ist Heinrich getauft worden, the child has been christened Henry. Heinrich, is here the nominative case; schelten, to abuse; er wird ein Betrüger gescholten, he is abused as a cheat; schimpfen, to insult by opprobrious appellations: er wurde eine Memme geschimpft, he was insulted as a coward. Some verbs occur, in English, with two accusatives in the active, and two nominatives (namely one as the subject before, and the other as the object after the verb) in the passive voice: where, in German, the second case is construed with a preposition.

Such are the verbs, to appoint, to choose, to declare, and the like: for example, er ist zum Doctor gemacht worden, he is made a doctor: er ist zum Richter ernannt worden, he has been appointed judge; er wurde für einen Spitzbuben erklärt, he was declared a thief. Here the prepositions zu and für, are required, while in English, the nominative case is sufficient. Some grammarians join the verb lehren, to teach, with a double accusative, in the active voice: as, jemanden Musik lehren, to teach a person musick. Therefore it would be right to say, in the passive, er ist Musik gelehrt worden, he has been taught musick. But this mode of expression would be considered as rather unusual. It would be less so, to say, ihm ist Musik gelehrt worden, musick has been taught to him. If the dative (ihm) be, in this instance, adopted the double accusative must be considered as excluded from the active voice. Accordingly, a dative is to be used with the verb lehren—einem etwas lehren, to teach something to a person.

3. The reflective verbs are followed by a nominative, after als, or wie, *as:* for instance, er beträgt sich als ein rechtschaffener Mann, he conducts himself *as* an honest man; er zeichnet sich als ein guter Soldat aus, he distinguishes himself *as* a good soldier. But it must be observed, that this nominative case is not governed by the reflective verb. That phrase is elliptical, and at full length would be, er beträgt sich, als ein rechtschaffener Mann sich beträgt, he conducts himself, as an honest man conducts himself; er zeichnet sich aus, als ein guter Soldat sich auszeichnet, he distinguishes himself, as a good soldier distinguishes himself. The circumstances are the same after

verbs, which are not reflective: as, der Knabe schreibt als ein Mann, the boy writes as a man; for der Knabe schreibt, als ein Mann schreibt, the boy writes as a man writes. If the case be referred to the reflective verb, it must be the accusative, for example, er zeigt sich als einen tüchtigen Feldherrn, he shows himself an able general.

Rule II.—The Genitive case, governed:

1. By the verbs: anklagen, to accuse of; bedürfen, to be in need of, (sometimes, it is construed with the accusative case); beschuldigen, to accuse of, to charge with; berauben, to rob; überheben, to disburden, to free from; würdigen, to deign, to think worthy of. The thing that we are accused of, in need of, charged with, robbed of, freed from, thought worthy of, is put in the genitive case: for example, jemanden des Mordes anklagen, to accuse a person of murder; jemanden der Verrätherey beschuldigen, to charge a person with treachery; jemanden seines Vermögens berauben, to rob a person of his fortune; jemanden der Mühe überheben, to free a person from the trouble; jemanden großer Ehre würdigen, to think a person worthy of great honour.

2. The following take the genitive case of the thing, and the accusative of the person; but they may also be placed in some other construction: Gewähren, to grant; entblößen, to strip: entlasten, to dismiss; entladen, to disburden: entledigen, to free from; to acquit, to disincumber; entsetzen, to displace; überführen, to convict; überzeugen, to convince: versichern, to assure; verweisen, to banish. For example: jemanden seines Wunsches ge-

währen, to grant to a person his wish, that which he wishes; einen Mann seines Amtes entsetzen, to discharge a man from his office; sich einer Last entledigen, to disencumber one's self of a burden; den Schuldigen seines Verbrechens überführen, to convict the guilty person of his crime; ich versichere dich meiner Freundschaft, I assure thee of my friendship. Those beginning with ent and über, may be construed with the preposition von, and the dative following: as, jemanden von seiner Last entladen, to free a person from his burden; jemanden von seinem Dienste entlassen, to dismiss a person from his office; jemanden von seinem Irrthume überzeugen, to convince a person of his errour. Gewähren, and versichern, may be joined with the dative of the person and the accusative of the thing: as, ich gewähre dir deine Bitte, I grant (to) you your request; ich versichere es dir, I assure it (to) you. Versichern, is likewise combined with the preposition von: as, ich bin von der Sache versichert, I am assured of the thing.—Belehren, has the genitive of the thing, in the expression: jemanden eines bessern belehren, to inform a person of what is better, to set him right. But commonly von is made use of—Er hat mich von der Sache belehrt.

3. These govern either the genitive, or the accusative, the former being more usual in some of them, and the latter in others: achten, to mind, to care about; bedürfen, to want: begehren, to desire; entbehren, to want, to do without; erwähnen, to mention; genießen, to enjoy; pflegen, to foster, to take care of; schonen, to spare; spotten, to mock; vergessen, to forget; warten, to attend to, to take care of: as, seines Amtes warten, to attend to one's

office.—Gedenken, to remember, to think of, may have the genitive after it, or the preposition an, with the accusative.

4. Several reflective verbs are construed with the genitive case of the thing. Such are; sich anmaßen, to claim, as, sich eines Titels anmaßen, to claim a title, (also with the accusative, sich einen Titel anmaßen); sich (einer Sache) annehmen, to interest one's self in a thing; sich bedanken, to thank for: as, ich bedanke mich dessen, I thank you for that; sich bedenken, to consider; sich besinnen, to think upon; sich bedienen, to make use of; sich begeben, to resign, to give up; sich bemächtigen, sich bemeistern, to make one's self master of a thing, to gain possession of it; sich enthalten, to abstain; sich entschlagen, to get rid of a thing; sich entsinnen, to recollect; sich erbarmen, to have mercy, to have compassion: sich erinnern, to remember; sich erwehren, to resist; sich freuen, to rejoice in, to enjoy; sich getrösten, to hope for with confidence; sich rühmen, to boast of; sich schämen, to be ashamed: sich unterfangen, unterwinden, to venture on, to undertake; sich versehen, to be aware of; sich weigern, to refuse.* Add some impersonals: es gereut mich, I repent; mich jammert, I pity, am sorry for; es verlangt mich, I desire; es verlohnt sich (der Mühe), it is worth (while). Many of these verbs also admit other cases, and prepositions.

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* The reflective, or reciprocal pronoun, in most of these verbs, is in the accusative case: anmaßen has it in the dative; which appears, when it is put in the first person: as, ich maße mir dieß an, this I pretend to.

5. The verbs seyn, to be, and werden, to become, have the genitive case after them, in some phrases: as, der Meinung seyn, to be of opinion; Vorhabens seyn, to be in the intention, to intend; Willens seyn, to purpose; Unmuths seyn, to be in a state of displeasure, dissatisfaction, dejection, to be displeased, to be dissatisfied, to be dejected; —Vorhabens werden, to resolve, to determine.

The combination of the genitive case with verbs, was formerly more frequent, than it is at the present day. It is found in old writings, after many verbs, which are now joined to other cases, or followed by prepositions. For instance, to express a part of a thing, the mere genitive was put, where a preposition is now employed: as, iß des Brotes, eat of the bread; trinke das Weines, drink of the wine; nimm des Getreides, take of the corn. In modern language it would be: iß von dem Brote, trinke von dem Weine.*

Rule III.—The Dative case after the verb.

1. After transitive verbs which, at the same time, govern the accusative. The accusative is then called the case of the thing, and the dative the case of the person: for example, geben Sie dem Manne das Buch, give the book to the man. Dem Manne is the dative case of the person, and das Buch, the accusative of the thing.—The following transitives take the dative of the person; geben, to give;

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* Voss. Odyssee, 1. 113. Einige mischten des Weines, some mixed of the wine. This is an intimation of the ancient construction.

nehmen, to take from a person; sagen, to say, to tell; erzählen, to tell, to relate; antworten, to answer; bringen, to bring; befehlen, to command; bezahlen, to pay; kosten, to cost; bieten, to offer; borgen, to sell upon credit; leihen, to lend; glauben, to believe; gönnen, not to envy, not to grudge: klagen, to complain of, to state in the form of complaint; liefern, to furnish; leisten, to show, to render: as, Dienste leisten, to render services; erlassen, to remit; erwiedern, to return, to give in turn, to reply; gebieten, to command; geloben, to vow; erlauben, to permit: gestatten, to allow; widerrathen, to dissuade from. Add verbs compounded with ab: abbitten, to beg pardon, einem einen Fehler abbitten, to beg pardon of a person for a fault; abfordern, to demand from; abzwingen, to force from; abrathen, to dissuade; abschlagen, to refuse, absprechen, to give sentence against a person, to deny, einem etwas absprechen; abkaufen, to buy of. Some with an: anbieten, to offer; anrathen, to advise; andeuten, to signify; andichten, to attribute; anzeigen, to announce; and others. Some with bey: beybringen, to impart; beylegen, to attribute; beymessen, to impute. Some with ent: entreissen, to snatch away; entziehen, to take away, &c.* With wider: widerrathen, to dissuade. Subjoin lastly the reflective verbs, sich anmaßen, to claim, to pretend to; sich einbilden, to fancy, to imagine. Examples: ich maße mir den Title an, I pretend to the title; ich bilde mir den Umstand ein, I imagine the circumstance. After sich anmaßen, the genitive may be put, in the room of the accusative.†

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* See p. 341. † See p. 435, 4.

2. After verbs intransitive: as, anhangen, to adhere to; anliegen, to apply to, to solicit; gehören and angehören, to belong to; begegnen, to meet, to happen to; bekommen, to agree with, said of things, that refer to health and constitution, for instance, of eating and drinking; bevorstehen, to impend; beyfallen, to agree with a person in opinion; beykommen, to come near, to get at; beypflichten, to coincide with in opinion; beystehen, to assist; danken, to thank; dienen, to serve; drohen, to threaten; entfliehen, entgehen, to escape; entsprechen, to answer to, to correspond to; and other compounds with ent;* einfallen, to occur to the thoughts, or the memory; eingehen, to enter the mind, to be understood; einkommen, to enter the thoughts, to enter the mind; einleuchten, to be clear, to be evident, to appear; folgen, to follow; fröhnen, to do service without pay; gebühren, to be due; gedeihen, to succeed, to prosper; gehorchen, to obey; gefallen, to please; gerathen, gelingen, to succeed; gleichen, to be like; geziemen, to become, to befit; helfen, to help; nützen, to be useful, to be of use; obliegen, (einer Sache) to apply one's self to a thing—also (as an impersonal) to be incumbent upon; unterliegen, to be overcome, to yield; schaden, to hurt; scheinen, to seem; schmeicheln, to flatter; steuern, to check, to restrain; trotzen, to bid defiance; wehren, to check; weichen, ausweichen, to give way, to yield; sich widersetzen, to oppose, to resist; widerstehen, to resist; wohlwollen, to wish well; zufallen, to fall to; zuhören, to listen to, to hear; zugehören, to belong to; zukommen, to

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* See page 341.

become, to be suitable, to belong to, to be due; zureden, to speak to, to exhort; and other compounds with zu. And these impersonals: es ahnet, or ahndet, mir, it misgives me, I foresee; es beliebt, it pleases; es gebricht, it is wanting; es graut mir, I am fearful; es träumt mir, I dream; es schwindelt mir, I am giddy; es schaudert mir, I shudder; es vorschlägt mir nichts, it makes no difference to me.

3. Some verbs admit both the dative, and the accusative: ankommen, to come upon—mir, or mich kommt Furcht an, fear comes upon me; mir, or mich däucht, it seems to me; mir, or mich dünkt, it seems to me (the accusative is more usual); es schmerzt mir, or mich, it pains me; mir, or mich ekelt, I loathe. Heißen, to bid, to desire, occurs with the dative of the person, and the accusative of the thing—Wer hat dir das geheißen, who desired you to do that? but the person may also be put in the accusative, wer hat dich das geheissen? The same is to be said of lehren, to teach, which either is followed by two accusatives, one of the thing, and the other of the person; or by the dative of the person, and the accusative of the thing. I think the latter more proper.

4. The dative expresses advantage, or disadvantage, and answers to the English prepositions, *to* and *for*: as, dir scheinet die Sonne, for thee the sun shines; dir lachen die Felder, to thee the fields smile: dir heulen die Winde, to thee (against thee) the winds howl.

Rule IV.—The Accusative is governed by verbs transitive.

These verbs, which imply an action, passing over to an object: as, I love my country. *I love* is the verb transitive, the action of which passes over to an object, *my country.*

That verbs neuter may be transformed into transitives, and govern an accusative, has been noticed upon a former occasion:* as, einen guten Kampf kämpfen, to fight a good fight; where kämpfen, is joined with the accusative, though it is generally used without any case.

There are verbs that take a double accusative: as, Heißen, to call; nennen, to name; schelten, to abuse; schimpfen, to call by an opprobrious name. For example: ich heiße, nenne, ihn einen Helden, I call him a hero; er schalt, schimpfte ihn einen Betrüger, he called him a cheat. To which may be added fragen, to ask, as, einen etwas fragen, to ask a person something; but here it is better to make use of a preposition, as, einen um etwas fragen, to ask a person about something. Of lehren, to teach, and heißen, to command, which sometimes have a double accusative, mention has been made, in the foregoing page.

The Participle.

The most essential points, concerning the participle, have been anticipated in the First Part.—Besides its connexion with the verb, the participle is, in the syntax, liable to the rules of the adjective.—The preterite is combined in a particular way, with the verbs wollen, haben, and wissen: as, ich wollte Sie gefragt haben, I would

* Page 319.

have you asked, that is to say, I should wish to ask you; ich wollte Sie gebeten haben, I would have you requested, that is, I would request you; dieses Verbrechen wollen wir geahndet wissen, we would know this crime punished, that is, we wish to have it punished; er will nichts von der Sache gesagt wissen, he wishes not to know any thing said of the matter, that is, he does not wish to have any thing said about it.—With the preterite participle an absolute accusative case may be combined: as, keinen ausgenommen, no one excepted.

There are some participles, which may be said to represent pronouns, having a demonstrative signification. Of this description are: besagt, aforesaid; gedacht, erwähnt, aforementioned; genannt, aforenamed; folgend, the following.*

SECTION III.

OF THE PREPOSITION, CONJUNCTION, AND INTERJECTION.

This section only furnishes a few short observations.

Of the Preposition.

When the same preposition belongs to more than one noun, it need only be once expressed: as, von meinem,

* Compare p. 188, 2. 368.

Vater, meinem Bruder und meiner Schwester, from my father, my brother and my sister.

Of the Conjunction.

The subjunctive mood follows after some conjunctions: yet it is not governed by them, as sometimes is erroneously conceived, but depends upon other grounds, which have been fully explained above.*

Of the Interjection.

The interjection stands quite by itself: it neither is governed by, nor governs, any other part of speech. Therefore, the nominative and vocative, being independent cases, that is, such as are not governed by a preceding word, are most proper after interjections. Ach! ich unglücklicher Mensch, ah! I unhappy mortal! Ey! der Schalk, ah! the rogue! O! was für ein Scheusal! O! what a horrible object! Ach! lieber Freund! ah! beloved friend! O! theuerster Vater, O! dearest Father!

The genitive case is found after interjections: for example, Ach! des Elendes, ah! the misery! O! der Freude, oh! what joy! Ach! des Undankbaren, ah! the ungrateful wretch! Pfui! des schamlosen Menschen, fie! what a shameless man! That case was not, as I suppose, originally the effect of the interjection, but of some other word, either substantive, or preposition, which, in process of time, has been omitted.

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* See page 353.

The dative of advantage or disadvantage,* occurs after certain terms, that may be called interjections, though they are not strictly of that description: as, Wohl ihm! happy him! wohl dem Menschen, happy the man! weh mir! woe is me!

The accusative is sometimes observed, after the interjection, as it is in Latin. O! mich unglücklichen, *O! me miserum!* O, unhappy me! This also may be explained by an ellipsis. Perhaps a verb might be supplied, after the interjection, such as *see, pity!*

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* Page 439.

CHAPTER II.

ON SOME PECULIARITIES IN THE LANGUAGE.

THE first topick, in this chapter, to which we shall direct our attention, will be

*The Composition of Words.**

By this operation, the German Language has the means of creating new terms, out of its own substance, and of supplying itself with expressions, for any idea that may arise. Though almost every tongue possesses this resource, to a certain degree, yet the German enjoys the advantages, resulting from it, more amply than others. It is rich in compounds, and has the faculty of exercising its formative power, to a considerable latitude, under certain easy, and useful restrictions. The Greek language may perhaps exceed it in the number of compound words, with which the vocabulary abounds; but it must yield to the former, in the convenience, and precision, with which the act of composition is managed.

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* Mr. Adelung has fully, and ably, discussed this subject, in his System (Lehrgebäude), Vol. II. p. 209—274; and his Orthography, p. 305—337.

A compound word is produced by the union of two, or more terms, into one. Such expressions, therefore, as these: *newspaper, tablecloth, fortuneteller, bosomfriend, winterseason, bookbinder, bookseller, watchmaker,* belong to that class.

The rules for composition, which are tacitly acknowledged, in German, and ought to be uniformly observed, are these two:

Rule I.—A compound word should consist of two distinct, and clear ideas. The terms, which enter into the composition, must furnish two ideas; and these ideas must be so perspicuous, that, when combined in one word, they may, at the first perception, render it intelligible. They ought to bring into the compound neither obscurity, nor ambiguity.

Rule II.—The prior term of the compound should define, and limit the other. Hence the first component may be called the *definite,* or *particular term;* and the second, the *fundamental,* or *general.* For example: *Winterseason.* Two terms, giving two distinct ideas, *winter* and *season.* The latter is the fundamental, or general term; which by the former, *winter,* is defined, and limited. *Season,* is thereby circumscribed, and confined to one particular kind. *Newspaper,—paper* is undetermined, and liable to be variously conceived; but a definite term, *news,* being joined with it, the acceptation of the word is particularised: it is specified, what paper is meant. *Watchmaker,—a maker* is a person that makes *any thing;* but by the prior term *watch,*

it is stated, how his art of making is defined, to what particular object it is limited.

These are the two rules of composition, to which some further observations are now to be added.

1. In substantive compounds, the second component, or fundamental term, furnishes the gender.*

2. When two words are joined together, without the circumstance stated in the second rule, of the one's defining the other, such words are not to be regarded as compounds. Two terms may be in connexion, without that qualification, standing merely in opposition to one another. Such are *Prince Bishop, Queen Empress.* These words imply, that one person has two attributes; which, in other instances, would be linked by means of a conjunction: as, *Emperour and King, Doctor and Professor:* but the first term cannot be said to define, and circumscribe the second. It is, therefore, wrong to write such words in *one.* All that may be allowed, in compliance with custom, is, to unite them by the sign of hyphen: as, *Prince-Bishop; Queen-Empress, or Empress-Queen.*

3. It may be considered as a subordinate precept, after those two rules have been duly put into practice, that the compound should neither be too long, nor harsh to the ear. Respecting the length, it may be remarked,

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* See page 133, VI.

that when it is insisted, that two terms, containing two ideas, should constitute the compound, this does not preclude the previous compound from being employed in the composition. Though one of the terms be a compounded word, yet in the composition, for which it is required, it is supposed to give only one simple idea. For example, das Silberbergwerk, the silver mine, consisting of Silber, silver, and Bergwerk, a mine, has for its second term, a compound word, Bergwerk: for, this is to be analysed into Berg, a mountain, and Werk, work; yet the idea which this word affords towards the composition of Silberbergwerk, is simply one. Consequently, words may be doubly, or more times, compounded, without being disqualified from serving to a new composition according to the second rule. But on that account the intimation is here given, that it is not advisable to make the composition too long. If, however, it be found necessary to admit such words, the sign of hyphen (=) is resorted to, in order to break their extended appearance: as, General=Feldzeugmeister, Master General of the Ordnance; Reichs=General=Feldmarschall, Field-marshal General of the Empire.

4. The sign of hyphen is moreover, employed, when either both components, or one of them, are foreign words: as, das Reichs=Collegium, the council of the Empire; das *Criminal*-Gericht, the criminal court of justice; der Justitz-Rath, a council, or counsellor, of justice; das *Intelligenz*-Blatt, a paper for advertisements; das *Intelligenz-Comtoir*, the advertising office; das *Justitz-Collegium*, the court of justice. Not un-

frequently those foreign words are written in their own type, as is done in these examples, not in the German character.

5. By the process of composition are produced,

(1) Substantives, in the following manner:

a. Both terms being Substantives. Examples: die Abendstunde, the evening hour; from der Abend, the evening, and die Stunde, the hour: der Apfelbaum, the apple tree; der Apfel, and der Baum: das Rathhaus, the council house; der Rath, das Haus: der Arbeitslohn, wages for work; die Arbeit, der Lohn: der Sonntag, Sunday; die Sonne, der Tag: der Gottesdienst, divine service; Gott, God, der Dienst, the service: der Heldenmuth, heroick courage; der Held, the hero, der Muth, the courage: die Herzensgüte, goodness of heart; das Herz, die Güte.

b. The first term being an Adjective. Die Großmuth, magnanimity; groß, great, der Muth, spirit: die Schwermuth, heaviness of spirit, melancholy; schwer, heavy, der Muth,* spirit: die Eigenliebe, self love; eigen, proper, and die Liebe.

c. A Numeral the first term. Der Dreyfuß, the tripod; drey, three, der Fuß, the foot: das Viereck, the square

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* It will be noticed, that in those two last examples, there is a deviation from the first observation, relative to the gender of compound substantives; which circumstance is remarked, page 133, VI.

vier, four, die Ecke,* the corner: das Achteck, the octagon; acht, eight.

d. The Pronoun Selbst *the first term.* Das Selbstgefühl, self-feeling; das Gefühl: die Selbstprüfung, self-examination; die Prüfung: der Selbstschuß, or Selbschuß, a spring-gun; der Schuß, an instrument for shooting.

e. A Verb the first term. Der Fechtboden, the fencing school; fechten, to fence, der Boden, the floor: die Reitbahn, the riding school; reiten, to ride, die Bahn, the course, the ground: das Wartgeld, pay for waiting, for attendance; warten, to wait, das Geld, money.

f. A Particle the first term, such as, ab, an, ein, &c. Die Abreise, the departure: die Ankunft, the arrival: der Eingang, the entrance.

(2) Adjectives.

a. A Substantive being the first term. Tugendreich, rich in virtue; die Tugend, virtue, reich, rich: kraftvoll, full of strength, or power; die Kraft, voll: eiskalt, cold as ice; das Eis, kalt: goldgelb, yellow as gold; das Gold, gelb: pechschwarz, black as pitch; das Pech, schwarz: gottesfürchtig, pious, fearing God; Gott, God, and fürchtig (an adjective, unusual out of composition): hülfsbedürftig, destitute, wanting help; die Hülfe, bedürftig.

b. An Adjective the first term. Leichtfertig, thoughtless, flighty; hellblau, sky blue; freywillig, voluntary; altklug, wise as an old man.

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* Gender varying; see the foregoing note.

c. A Numeral the first term. Dreyeckig, three cornered, triangular; viereckig, quadrangular, square; sechsfüßig, six-footed; achtseitig, having eight sides.

d. A Particle the first term. Abhängig, dependent; anständig, becoming; übermüthig, overbearing, insolent; zukünftig, future; ungläubig, unbelieving; ungerecht, unjust.

e. A Verb the first term. Denkwürdig, memorable; denken, to think of and würdig, worthy: habsüchtig, avaricious; haben, to have, and die Sucht, eager desire: liebenswürdig, lovely, amiable; lieben, to love, würdig, worthy: lobenswerth, praiseworthy; loben, to praise, werth, deserving.

(3) Verbs.

a. A Substantive being the first term. Brandschatzen, to raise contributions, by the menace of fire; der Brand, fire, schatzen, to raise contributions: lustwandeln, to walk for pleasure, to take a walk; die Lust, pleasure, wandeln, to walk: wetteifern, to emulate; die Wette, the wager, competition, eifern, to be eager, or zealous: wetterleuchten, to lighten without thunder; das Wetter, the weather, the tempest, leuchten, to shine: handhaben, to handle; die Hand, the hand, haben, to have: ehebrechen, to commit adultery; die Ehe, the wedlock, brechen, to break.

b. An Adjective the first term. Frohlocken, to exult; froh: vollbringen, to accomplish; vollziehen, to execute; voll.

c. A Particle the first term. This species of composition has been treated of at large, in Part I. Chap. 4. *Sect.* p. 332.

(4) PARTICIPLES.

A Substantive being the first term. a.) The Present participle: Ehrliebend, loving honour, generous, noble; die Ehre, the honour, liebend, loving: gesetzgebend, legislative; das Gesetz, the law, gebend, giving: wachhabend, having the guard, being on duty, as an officer; die Wache, the guard, habend, having.—b.) The Preterite participle: Blumenbekränzt, crowned with flowers; die Blume, the flower, bekränzt, crowned: schneebedeckt, covered with snow; der Schnee, snow, bedeckt, covered: seegeboren, born of the sea; die See, the sea, geboren, born.

(5) PARTICLES.

Compounded with Particles. Vorwärts, forward; zurück, back; hinein, into; heraus, out of; mithin, therefore; daher, thence; nunmehr, now.

6. The components often remain unaltered: as, Apfelbaum, Uhrmacher, tugendreich; but in many instances, the first term undergoes some change, either by letters being added, or omitted.

(1) LETTERS ADDED:

Es: as, der Gottesdienst, divine service; from Gott: die Geisteskraft, power of mind; der Geist: die Todesnoth, agony of death; der Tod.

S: as, das Himmelslicht, the light of heaven; der Himmel: das Eselsohr, an ass's ear, the corner of a leaf in a book, turned down, a dog's ear; der Esel: das Arbeitshaus,

Nachts,* in the night; Sonnabends, on Saturday: Montages, on Monday; eines Tages, one day, on a certain day; heutiges Tages, this day, einmal des Monathes, once in a month; viermal des Jahres, four times in a year, zwey ganzer Stunden, two whole hours.

2. Relation of place. Dieses Ortes, in this place; gehörigen Ortes, in, or at, a proper place; aller Orte, in all places, every where.

3. Way and manner. Gerades (or geraden) Weges, straightways; stehenden Fußes, immediately; dieser Gestalt, in this manner; folgender Gestalt, in the following manner; meines Theils, on my part; unsern Theils, on our part; meines Wissen, to my knowledge; meines Bedünkens, in my opinion; einiger Maßen, in some measure; gewisser Maßen, in a certain degree; unverrichteter Sache, not having effected one's purpose. Add the following phrases: Hungers sterben, to die of hunger; eines schmerzlichen Todes sterben, to die a painful death; der Hoffnung leben, to live in hope; des Zutrauens leben, to live with confidence, that is, to place confidence in a thing, to entertain a confident opinion. With the word seyn: as, Willens seyn, to intend; der Meinung seyn, to be of opinion; des Todes seyn, to perish.

The peculiar use of this case has been adverted to, in the First Part.† It owes its existence indisputably to the

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* Here the article corresponds with the termination, and not with the gender, of the substantive. See, p. 361.

† Pages 361 and 362.

omission of some governing word: but it is not, in general, easy to fill up the ellipsis. In practice, it is sufficient to know that such is the usage.

The Use of the Accusative.

This case is employed to mark time, both as to date, and duration.—*Date:* den zehnten Tag nach der Schlacht, the tenth day after the battle; so war es das erste Jahr, thus it was (in) the first year; den neunten Juli, the ninth of July; vorigen Dienstag, last Tuesday: dreymal die Woche, (acc.) three times a week.—*Duration:* Ich bin den ganzen Tag zu Hause gewesen, I have been at home the whole day; ich werde noch einen Monath in der Stadt bleiben, I shall remain yet a month in town; verweilen Sie einen Augenblick, stay one moment. The adverb lang, long, is frequently subjoined, to mark the duration: as, zehn Jahre lang, for ten years.

After certain adjectives, and verbs, signifying weight, measure, extent, age, price, value, such as, *great, broad, heavy, to weigh, to cost,* the accusative follows. Einen Fuß breit, a foot broad; einen Monath alt, a month old; es wiegt einen Zentner, it weighs a cent-weight.

Space and motion are indicated by the accusative. Einen langen Weg gehen, to go a long way; den Berg hinunter laufen, to run down the mountain; er geht einen guten Schritt, he walks a good pace.

Nouns of Measure and Quantity

leave the words, which follow them, unaltered: as, [illegible] Ellen Tuch, twelve yards of cloth; fünf Pfund [illegible] pounds of meat; Zehn Thaler Silber, ten doll[illegible]

Nachts,* in the night; Sonnabends, on Saturday: Montages, on Monday; eines Tages, one day, on a certain day; heutiges Tages, this day, einmal des Monathes, once in a month; viermal des Jahres, four times in a year, zwey ganzer Stunden, two whole hours.

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often found, where the English can affix no distinct meaning to it. It seems to be a sort of expletive; in this character, however, it conveys certain ideas, which give to the sentences a peculiar modification. Sometimes the notions, *may be, perhaps, probably, about, nearly, indeed,* may correspond with it. It occurs in questions: as, haben Sie wohl gehört, was man davon redet? have you perhaps heard, what is said of it?—and accompanies verbs in an undetermined, and conditional construction: as, ich möchte wohl lesen, I should like to read (If I could). Not seldom, it resembles the Italian *ben, bene, pur, pure,* in its expletive capacity.—The adverb *Well,* noting, of a good quality, in a good manner, not ill, is, in German, generally rendered by gut; by which means the confusion, that might arise, between this signification and the expletive, is obviated. For example: Ich weiß nicht, wo man diese Sachen gut kaufen kann, I know not, where one may buy these things *well.* In this instance, if wohl were used; it would, by the generality of readers, be accepted with an expletive meaning.

Gern, willingly; comparative, lieber, more willingly; superlative, am liebsten, most willingly.

By this adverb, the idea, *to like, to be fond of,* is furnished: as, etwas gern thun, to do a thing willingly, to like to do it; etwas gern essen, to eat a thing willingly, that is, to like it; etwas gern mögen, to like to eat a thing.* Etwas gern sehen, to see a thing willingly, to see

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* See p. 273.

The Number.

The English often admit a different Number, in the verb, from what the subject nominative, according to strict grammar, would require, which may also be referred to *constructio ad sensum*. Namely, when a *collective noun* precedes, though in the singular, the verb, belonging to it, frequently stands in the plural: as, "all the company *were* present; the army of martyrs *praise* thee." It should be *was*, and *praises*, because *company* and *army*, are of the singular number. But being collectives, that is to say, words which comprehend several individuals, the idea of plurality is followed, and the grammatical number set aside. The Germans, however, do not allow *this* deviation, but always adhere to the number of the subject nominative.

On the other hand, in some instances, they use the singular number collectively, in reference to more than one subject, where the English are particular in employing the plural. For example, zehn Menschen haben ihr Leben eingebüßt, ten persons have lost their *life*; where the English would say, *lives*. Mehr als hundert Bürger haben ihren Namen unterzeichnet, more than a hundred citizens have subscribed their *name*,—in English *names*. Other languages, not only modern, but also the Greek and Latin, coincide with the practice of the Germans.* To the former examples the following may be added: die rothe, blaue, und gelbe Farbe, the red, blue, and yellow *colour*—

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* Compare the Exercises, p. 126. note 3.

in English, *colours;* die Französische und Italienische Sprache, the French and Italian *language*—in English, *languages.* In these two last examples, the German idiom may be accounted for by the figure ellipsis, thus: die rothe (Farbe), blaue (Farbe) und gelbe (Farbe) the red (colour), the blue (colour), and the yellow colour. Die Französische (Sprache) und Italienische Sprache, the French (language), and Italian language.

The Dative Singular

of the first and second personal pronouns, mir, dir, is, in familiar language, often inserted, merely as an expletive: du bist mir ein schöner Kerl, thou art a fine fellow! Ich lobe mir den Rheinwein, I give the preference to Rhenish wine; das mag dir eine Freude gewesen seyn, that must have been a (great) joy! The plural is also thus found, especially of the second person: das war euch eine Lust! that was a pleasure! das war euch ein Fest! that was a festivity! The third personal likewise is to be met with, in this expletive character: as, ein Kranker der ihm starb, one of his patients who died; though here the personal ihm, to him, represents, in fact, the possessive his.—Those expletive pronouns may be supposed originally to have meant, *with regard to me, to thee, to you:* or, *in my idea, thy idea, your idea.*

The Possessive Pronoun

is, sometimes, put after the genitive case: as, des Vater *sein* Bruder, the father *his* brother; der Frau ihr Kind,

the woman her child, instead of, the woman's child.* It seems, that the pronoun acts as a substitute for the termination of the noun; consequently, it is wrong to say, des Vaters sein Kind, des Mannes sein Buch; instead of, des Vater sein Kind, des Mann sein Buch; though this circumstance may not be always attended to, in practice.

When, in English, an individual object of possession is to be indicated, from a greater number of the same kind, the possessive pronoun absolute, with *of* before it, is placed after the substantive: as, *a friend of mine, a servant of yours, an acquaintance of ours, a book of his.* In German this must be differently expressed: for instance, ein Freund von mir, a friend of me, or, einer von meinen Freunden, one of my friends; ein Bedienter von uns, a servant of us, or, einer von unsern Bedienten, one of our servants; eines von seinen Büchern, one of his books.

It has been noticed, in another place,† that the genitive of the demonstrative pronoun, dessen, deren, and in the plural derer, is occasionally employed in the room of the possessives, sein, and ihr.

The Demonstrative Dieser, diese, dieses,

may be referred to what is past, present, or future. Diese Nacht, may signify *this night*, that is to say, the night which is now existing, or which is to come; and

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† P. 241, 3.

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also *last night*, or that which is to come. The English pronoun *this*, is hardly ever used in the latter sense.

The Relative Pronoun

is, in English, sometimes omitted, and to be understood: in German, it must always be expressed.* With auch or auch immer, following, it signifies, whoever, whosoever, whatever, whatsoever: as, wer auch der Mann seyn mag, whoever may be the man; was auch immer die Folge seyn mag, whatever may be the consequence.—Was occurs, instead of etwas, something.

Einige, and etliche, *some*,

joined with numerals, denote an undetermined excess of the number mentioned: as, Einige, or etliche zwanzig Pfund, some twenty pounds; that is, twenty pounds, and some odd ones besides. When prefixed to a hundred, or a superior number, they intimate a repetition of the same: as, Einige hundert Menschen, some hundreds of men; etliche tausend Thaler, some thousands of dollars.

Alle und jede, all and every one.

This is almost the only instance, in which jeder suffers the plural number.

Alle,

in common life, signifies, sometimes, that a thing is consumed, finished, that nothing of it is left: as, der Wein ist alle, the wine is finished; die Erdbeeren sind alle, the strawberries are eaten.

See p. 248, 5.

Meines gleichen, deines gleichen, seines gleichen, ihres gleichen, eures gleichen

mean, people of an equal situation with me, thee, him, her, them, you.

Irgend ein, irgend eine, any, or any one.

Ein Paar, a few.* Vor ein paar Tagen, a few days ago, the other day.

The Infinitive

of the active voice, after certain verbs, not unfrequently has a passive signification.† Laß ihn rufen, let him call, may also signify, let him be called; der Richter hieß ihn binden, the judge ordered him to bind, also to be bound; wir sahen ihn schlagen, we saw him beating, also, being beaten. Nun war nichts zu thun, now there was nothing to be done, literally, to do. Es ist zu hoffen, it is to hope, that is, to be hoped; es ist zu befürchten, it is to fear, that is to be feared. But in the use of this construction, care must be had to avoid any ambiguity of meaning, which, in certain circumstances, might exist.

The *Infinitive*, of the verbs dürfen, sollen, können, mögen, lassen, müssen, wollen, hören, sehen, is substituted for

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* Compare p. 161. A similar idiom, is to be found in some provinces of England.

† See Exercises, p. 148, note 2. Compare

the *Preterite Participle*, when an infinitive precedes.* Ich habe es nicht thun dürfen, (for gedurft), I was not allowed to do it; du hättest kommen sollen, (for gesollt), you ought to have come; wir hätten es sehen können, (for gekonnt), we might have seen it; er hat ein Haus bauen lassen, (for gelassen), he has caused a house to be built; ich habe ihn anhören müssen (for gemußt), I have been obliged to listen to him; hätten wir ausgehen wollen, (for gewollt), had we been inclined to go out; ich habe ihn reden hören, (for gehört), I have heard him speak; ich habe ihn reiten sehen, (for gesehen), I have seen him ride.—Lehren, to teach, and lernen, to learn, likewise allow the use of this infinitive; though the preterite participle is, at present, more frequently employed: as, er hat mich schreiben lehren, or gelehrt, he has taught me to write; ich habe bey ihm zeichnen lernen, or gelernt, I have learnt of him to draw.

The English admit the *Infinitive* after the words, *who, what, where, how:* for example: "I do not know what to do; I will tell you how to act, where to go, whom to address." The German infinitives cannot be placed in such a construction; the sentences must, therefore, be differently formed: as, ich weiß nicht, was ich thun soll, I know not what I must do; ich will Ihnen sagen, wie Sie handeln müssen, wohin Sie gehen müssen, mit wem

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* See Exercises, p. 149, note 2, where the subject is very well stated. Compare Adelung's Dictionary under the word hören.

Sie sprechen müssen, I will tell you how you ought to act, where you ought to go, whom you ought to address.

The Infinitive, with zu, is put, where the English avail themselves of the participle, with a preposition, such as *of*, *from*, and others. For example: das Vergnügen einen Freund zu sehen, the pleasure *of* seeing a friend; Gelegenheit zu reisen, opportunity *of* travelling; ich wurde abgehalten zu schreiben, I was prevented *from* writing. This peculiarity has been remarked in the first chapter*.

That *Infinitives* may be turned into substantives, by having the article, of the neuter gender, prefixed, has been already noticed.†

The Preterite Participle

of certain verbs, is united with the verb kommen, to come, in an active signification, to express the manner of coming: as, er kömmt geritten, he comes riding, on horeback; er kömmt gegangen, he comes walking, on foot; er kömmt gefahren, he comes driving, in a carriage; er kömmt gelacht, he comes laughing. See above.‡ Sometimes, the preterite participle seems to be a substitute for the imperative mood: as, Rosen auf den Weg gestreut, und des Harms vergessen, strew roses on the path, and forget sorrow; die Stube aufgeräumt, clear the room; in which examples gestreut und aufgeräumt, are preterite participles.§

Wohl,

whether considered as an adverb, or a conjunction, is

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* P. 428, B.

† P. 355. See also p. 125, 5. ‡ P. 358.

§ See Appendix to the Elements, sect. VIII, note 44.

often found, where the English can affix no distinct meaning to it. It seems to be a sort of expletive; in this character, however, it conveys certain ideas, which give to the sentences a peculiar modification. Sometimes the notions, *may be, perhaps, probably, about, nearly, indeed,* may correspond with it. It occurs in questions: as, haben Sie wohl gehört, was man davon redet? have you perhaps heard, what is said of it?—and accompanies verbs in an undetermined, and conditional construction: as, ich möchte wohl lesen, I should like to read (If I could). Not seldom, it resembles the Italian *ben, bene, pur, pure,* in its expletive capacity.—The adverb *Well,* noting, of a good quality, in a good manner, not ill, is, in German, generally rendered by gut; by which means the confusion, that might arise, between this signification and the expletive, is obviated. For example: Ich weiß nicht, wo man diese Sachen gut kaufen kann, I know not, where one may buy these things *well.* In this instance, if wohl were used; it would, by the generality of readers, be accepted with an expletive meaning.

Gern, willingly; comparative, lieber, more willingly; superlative, am liebsten, most willingly.

By this adverb, the idea, *to like, to be fond of,* is furnished: as, etwas gern thun, to do a thing willingly, to like to do it; etwas gern essen, to eat a thing willingly, that is, to like it; etwas gern mögen, to like to eat a thing.* Etwas gern sehen, to see a thing willingly, to see

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* See p. 273.

it with approbation; hence, to like, to approve. Er ißt Gemüse lieber als Fleisch, he likes vegetables better than meat; literally he eats more willingly. Sie sehen es am liebsten, they see it with most pleasure, that means, they like it best. The use of lieber, and am liebsten, will be readily understood, from that of gern.

Hin and Her.

The former signifies motion from the place, in which you are to another; and the latter from another place, towards you. Thus it has been explained before.* Hin und her, backwards and forwards.

Da,

combined with prepositions, and followed by the conjunction daß, sits as a substitute for the English participle, united with a preposition. Examples: *By reading much he became learned*, dadurch daß er viel las, wurde er gelehrt. *From talking too much, mischief often comes*, daraus daß man zu viel schwatzt, entsteht oft Unheil; *justice consists in giving every one his own*, Gerechtigkeit besteht darin, daß man jederman das seine gibt.

Doch,

put after an imperative, has the power of entreating, and exhorting, answering, in general, to the French *donc*, and frequently to the English *pray!* Examples: Sagen Sie mir doch, pray tell me; seyn Sie doch so gut, pray, be

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* P. 338.

the *Preterite Participle*, when an infinitive precedes.* Ich habe es nicht thun dürfen, (for gedurft), I was not allowed to do it; du hättest kommen sollen, (for gesollt), you ought to have come; wir hätten es sehen können, (for gekonnt), we might have seen it; er hat ein Haus bauen lassen, (for gelassen), he has caused a house to be built; ich habe ihn anhören müssen (for gemußt), I have been obliged to listen to him; hätten wir ausgehen wollen, (for gewollt), had we been inclined to go out; ich habe ihn reden hören, (for gehört), I have heard him speak; ich habe ihn reiten sehen, (for gesehen), I have seen him ride.—Lehren, to teach, and lernen, to learn, likewise allow the use of this infinitive; though the preterite participle is, at present, more frequently employed: as, er hat mich schreiben lehren, or gelehrt, he has taught me to write; ich habe bey ihm zeichnen lernen, or gelernt, I have learnt of him to draw.

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* P. 428, B.

† P. 355. See also p. 125, 5. ‡ P. 258.

§ See Appendix to the Elements, [illegible] note 44.

war! Wie stolz schien er nicht, how proud did he [*not*] appear! The French also make use of the negative. *Quel bruit ces hommes* n'auroient-ils pas *fait, s'ils m'avoient attrapé à un tel banquet!*

Not a, Not any, are, in German, commonly expressed by kein, none.*

Two Negatives, in the same sentence, are improper, because they are useless. For they do not affirm as in Latin, nor add to the force of the negation, as in Greek. Yet they occur not only in the language of common life, but also in the best writers. Der Kaiser und die Ligue standen gewaffnet und siegreich in Deutschland, und nirgends keine Macht, die ihnen Widerstand leisten konnte,† the Emperour and the league now stood armed, and victorious, in Germany, and there was *no power no where* to resist them. Er darf alles was er kann, und ist keinem andern nichts schuldig, he dare to do, what he can do, and is under *no* obligation to *no one*;‡ da er sich vollkommen wohl bewußt ist, nie keine Ehre gehabt zu haben, as he is perfectly conscious *never* to have possessed *no* honour.§ Nur kein Geld hat sie nicht, only she has *not got no* money, that is, not any money. ‖ Sometimes, indeed, there may appear to be energy in the repetition

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* Compare Exercises p. 156, note 5.

† Schiller's Geschichte des dreißigjährigen Krieges. Vol. 1. p. 227.

‡ Wieland's Agathon, Vol. i, p. 154.

§ Wieland's Agathon, Vol. 3. p. 109.

‖ Lessing's Lustspiele. Der Schatz, Scene 1, vol. 2. p. 167.

of the negative; but, altogether, it should be rather considered as a species of negligence in the composition.

About, nearly.

This idea, accompaning numbers, is differently given. 1. By certain adverbs, viz. beynahe, etwa, fast, ungefähr, wohl, bis. Es sind wohl drey Jahre, it is about three years; ungefähr zehn Pfund, about ten pounds; zwey bis drey Wochen, from two to three weeks. 2. In common life, but incorrectly, by eine, which seems to be corrupted from einige: as, eine acht Tage, about eight days. 3. By ein being prefixed to the substantive, and the termination er added to the latter: for example, ein Stücker zehn, about ten pieces, (das Stück, the piece); ein Elle drey, about three yards, (die Elle, the yard); ein Jahrer fünf, about five years, (das Jahr, the year). The syllable er it is supposed to be the remains of oder, or; consequently, ein Stücker zehn, would be said, instead of ein Stück oder zehn, one piece or ten. Thus eine Elle oder drey, one yard or three, ein Jahr oder fünf, one year or five. Whatever may be the true origin of this construction, it is not to be recommended for imitation. Nor is the following entitled to more regard, which consists, 4. in the use of the prepositions, an, bey. An die zwanzig, nearly twenty; bey, die vierzig, nearly forty.—Gegen, would be more proper.

The omission of the Conjunctions daß, *that, and* wenn, *if,*

has been adverted to, in other places. When these conjunctions are to be understood, the verb is some-

times put in the indicative mood, and sometimes in the subjunctive. *Indicative*, daß, being understood; as, ich behaupte, es wird regnen, I maintain (that) it will rain; ich glaube, es ist Zeit. I believe (that) it is time. Wenn being understood: as, kömmt er zu mir, so jage ich ihn fort, (if) he comes to me, I shall send him away. Kömmst du heute nicht, so kömmst du morgen, (if) thou dost not come to-day, thou wilt come to-morrow. Willt du reich in der Armuth seyn,* (if) thou wilt be rich in poverty.

Träget das Schicksal dich, so trage du wieder das Schicksal,
Folg' ihm willig und froh, willt du nicht folgen, du mußt.†

(*If*) Fate bears with thee, bear thou again with Fate,
Follow it willingly and cheerfully, (if) thou *wilt* not
follow, thou *must*.

Subjunctive, daß being understood; as: er sagt, es sey wahr, he says (*that*) it is true. Wenn being understood: as, Wäre ich in Frankreich, (*if*) I were in France, were I in France.

The Conjunction, So,

is employed to connect a sentence, when the prior member of it begins with a consecutive, casual or conditional conjunction.‡ Da er sich der Stadt näherte, so fand er die Wälle von den Feinden besetzt, when he approached the town,

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* Herder's Zerstreute Blätter, vol. 2. p. 10.

† Ibid. vol. 1. p. 21.

‡ I. Compare p. 389.

he found the ramparts occupied by the enemy. Wenn man sich in den Wissenschaften auszeichnen will, so muß man ununterbrochenen Fleiß besitzen, if a person would distinguish himself in the sciences, he must possess unceassing industry,—So is not always required, after the consecutive, and casual, such as da, when; als, as; wie, as; weil because: but it is rarely left out, after the conditional conjunctions, such as wenn, if; obschon, obgleich, wennschon, wenngleich, although. When the conditional is not given in the prior member, but to be understood, it is necessary to make use of so, in the subsequent: as, hätte ich das gewußt, so wäre ich nicht gekommen, had I known that, I should not have come; which stands for, wenn ich das gewußt hätte, if I had known that—therefore so must be inserted, in the following member. It is to be recommended after consecutive, and casual conjunctions, when the antecedent member is of some length, or consists of several links. So is also found to correct sentences, of which the first has the verb in the imperative mood, but no conjunction; as, vertraue Gott, so wird er dir helfen, trust in God, and he will help thee.

When obgleich, obschon, or a similiar word, noting though, although, precedes; doch, yet, or a synonymous conjunction, generally follows. Ob er gleich jung ist, so hat er doch viele Erfahrung, although he is young, he has (nevertheless) great experience,

Sondern, *but,*

has a disjunctive sense, and is exclusively, and solely,

used after a negative: as, es friert nicht, sondern es thaut, it does not freeze, but it thaws*.

Cases Absolute.

The accusative case, joined to the preterite participles is taken absolutely.† Examples: das Gesicht nach Osten gekehrt, his face being turned to the east; den Blick nach dem Vaterlande gewendet, his looks being turned towards his country: die Augen nach dem Himmel gerichtet, his eye, being directed towards heaven; diesen Umstand vorausgesetzt, this circumstance being supposed; den Gewinn abgerechnet, the gain being deducted; dieß ausgenommen, this being excepted.

Contractions

have been mentioned, upon the former occasions: for example, of the pronoun Es, it, with other words:‡ mirs, from mir es, dirs—dir es, gibs—gib es, sprachs—sprach es, wars—war es; and of the definite article, with prepositions § am, from an dem, im—in dem, ins—in das, zur—zu der. Contractions shorten the expression, but it is not always an advantage to do this. They should be avoided, when they interfere with the softness, and fluency of the language; and even the best of them are more calculated for common speech, than for dignified composition.

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* See p. 392. † P. 447.

‡ P. 233, 5. § P. 384.

CHAPTER III.

ON THE ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

THE verbal arrangement, in German, is neither regulated by the natural construction, so that the words should be placed, in a sentence, in the same succession, as they depend upon, or govern, one another: nor conducted according to the loose dictates of cadence, or rhythm.* The several parts of speech claim their posi-

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* The ancient, and most of the modern tongues, have no sure standard for the collocation of their words. The instruction, which Cicero gives upon this subject, is, that a proper symmetry should be observed in a sentence, and the words harmoniously combined. *Collocabuntur igitur verba, aut ut inter se quàm aptissimè cohæreant extrema cum primis, eaque sint quàm suavissimus vocibus; aut ut forma ipsa concinnitasque verborum conficiat ordinem suum, aut ut comprehensio numerosè et aptè cadat.* Orator, 42. This only affords a vague and fluctuating idea: for, the notions of symmetry and harmony, of cadence and rhythm, are undefined, and variable; because they must be referred to the sensation, and judgment of every individual. The ear alone is

tion, by virtue of certain rules, which are indisputably

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to decide, and that may be variously affected, in various persons. Cicero, indeed, seems to think, that there is a latent principle of correctness in the sense of hearing, which may be relied on: *Aures enim, vel animus aurium nuntio, naturalem quandam in se continet vocum omnium mensionem,* ibid. 53. *Esse in oratione numerum quendam, non est difficile cognoscere: judicat enim sensus,* ibid. 55. But the competency of that criterion may well be doubted, when it is recollected, what a diversity there exists in the faculty of that sense, and the justness of its perception. If we allow, that the ear of an orator, favoured by nature, may, through practice and attention, become so habituated to the rhythm of eloquence, as to produce that proportion and harmony, in his speech, to which Cicero alludes: yet other means will be wanted for those, who do not possess such advantages. The moderns, who have commented on the collocation of words, in the Latin language, have in vain endeavoured to establish a more tangible, and positive, principle. What they have propounded, is sufficient and unsatisfactory. Thus *Ernesti* in his *Initia Doctrinæ Selidioris* (ed. Lips. 1758,) p. 868, § 364, says:—*quod dignius est et majus, vel prius vel commune, præponemus; item ad quod magis attendi velimus—sed tamen in hoc posteriori genere nihil satis certum, &c.* And those who have handled the subject, after Ernesti, such as Scheller, Görenz, Bröder, and others, have not been more successful.

established, and interwoven with the very character of the language. To violate those rules, is as much an offence, as to disobey any other leading precept of grammar. It would mark the ignorance of a person as strikingly, as, for instance, an errour in the gender. By a fault of this kind, a foreigner would be most easily betrayed. For these reasons, it appears of consequence, that this subject should be thoroughly understood: but, strange to say! it has, in general, been overlooked, and neglected. The natives themselves seem, for a long time, to have been unconscious of this extraordinary property in their language, which had become familiar and habitual to them, from their infancy. To this circumstance it must be attributed, that it has passed unnoticed by so many grammarians, as have written on the German tongue. Foreigners have, thence, been induced to believe, that the collocation of words, in German, is arbitrary, and that it is not an object of grammatical necessity, and importance, but one superficially recommended for imitation. This statement of the question is, in the highest degree, fallacious, and absurd. An infringement of the laws of position is felt, by a native, the moment it occurs: and I ask, could such a sensation possibly take place, if that, from which it proceeds, did not exist? The negative of any proposition being remarked, the mind, which notices that negative, must surely, at the same time, be impressed with an idea of the affirmative. When I say, that a thing is *not black*, I should not be qualified to make that declaration, unless I had previously conceived the positive notion of *black*. Thus, when a fault is observed, it would be contradictory to

used after a negative: as, es friert nicht, sondern es thaut, it does not freeze, but it thaws*.

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* See p. 392. † P. 447.

‡ P. 233, 5. § P. 384.

rank, and order. That theory appears to be uncontradicted in practice, and I have, by repeated experience, been fully convinced of its real utility. Without the benefit of such aid, the labour, to a foreigner, of acquiring the German tongue, is almost endless. He may know, with accuracy, the various topicks of grammar, and be abundantly provided with phraseology; he may have learnt the best pronunciation, and made himself master of every other advantage: yet, if he is not initiated in the mystery of the arrangement of words, his language will ever remain ungainly, and defective. By long and unwearied attention, united with a nice and discerning ear, he may, perhaps, approximate to that habit, which the natives have imbibed, from their cradle: but he will not stand on safe ground, if he is merely to depend on habitual, and obscure sensations, which may leave him in doubt, whenever the peculiarities of other idioms intrude upon his recollection. These observations rest upon simple, and obvious facts, which cannot escape the notice of any one, who is competent to judge of these matters. I have met with that deficiency, of which I have been speaking, in foreigners, who had diligently studied, and long practised the German language; and might, in every other respect, be said to be completely in possession of that acquirement.

All those embarrassments, and difficulties, the following rules undertake to remove; and if they succeed to any considerable degree, in this object, which, I confidently affirm, they do, their value cannot be mistaken. Indeed, I look upon this portion of the present work, as perhaps the most interesting of the whole: for I

assert, that there is no rule for what is correct. If that were the case, I wish to be told, by what means that fault might have been detected. It is impossible to see errour, when we are ignorant of the truth, or to be sensible of what is wrong, without having a perception of what is right.

By this mode of reasoning I was led, very early, to conclude, that the arrangement of words, in the German language, was definable by rule. In my intercourse with foreigners, the manner in which they placed the words, when they attempted to speak, or write, German, engaged my attention. I knew enough of language, in general, to judge, that, when they made use of a wrong collocation, this was not owing to an accidental difference of rhythm, but to a radical, and permanent defect: the source of which I endeavoured to trace, and to discover the necessary remedies. I confess, that I pursued this speculation entirely unassisted: and appropriated to myself the result of the enquiry, as far as it went, without dividing it with any other person.* The system which I established, had for its foundation, the common division of the part of speech. To each, I assumed that a proper place belonged in a sentence, that they stood in a certain relation, and influenced one another, in point of

* I advert to this circumstance, because I have since found, that Mr. Adelung had entered into a similar investigation: with which, had I been acquainted, the progress of my own researches would probably have been accelerated.

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say, that the disquisition was new, and the elucidations obtained, satisfactory, and useful. The subject certainly could not be considered as trite and common, when, even in our days, it was so imperfectly comprehended by the natives, that several enlightened writers have been led into errour. So little was its nature understood, that some men of literary eminence have proclaimed their ignorance of it, by their rash attempts to change this constitutional part of the language. But whatever the weight of their authority, and example, might be, it was impossible, they could accomplish so ill-conceived a project.* The verbal arrangement will maintain itself,

* I have always regretted to class with these innovators the venerable PLATNER; and wondered, that a philosopher, like him, should have fallen into such a mistake. It seems, that he was desirous of giving to his writings every facility to be understood; to effect which, he adopted, in a great measure, what is called the natural construction, imagining that this was synonymous with simplicity, and plainness of composition. But the consequence was, that a new language was thus created which was not German, being deprived of the essential characteristick of verbal arrangement. Hence difficulty, and embarrassment are experienced, in reading the works of that author. For, by not allowing the ideas to flow in their accustomed channel, but forcing them to pass through a new and unusual direction, a restraint is imposed upon the operation of the mind, and its mechanical habits are impeded. The reader will find in the philosophical Aphorisms, enough to justify these obser-

in spite of the attacks, which may be directed against it, by a false spirit of reformation. The feelings of the whole nation will oppose themselves to those erroneous, and unprofitable designs.

The following rules are abstracted from the practice of the best writers, and the manner of speaking, among the well educated classes of society. It need scarce be remarked, that to the poet a certain latitude is granted, in regard to the position of words, so as to favour the

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exigencies of rhyme, and metre.—The chapter will consist of the following sections:

1. *Position of the Noun Substantive.*
2. *Of the Noun Adjective.*
3. *The Pronoun.*
4. *The Verb.*
5. *The Participle.*
6. *The Adverb.*
7. *The Preposition.*
8. *The Conjunction.*
9. *The Interjection.*

SECTION I.

POSITION OF THE NOUN SUBSTANTIVE.

Rule I.—The Substantive, in the nominative case, being *the subject* of a sentence, is placed before the verb.*

Note.—The Subject is to be distinguished from *the Object:* the former governs the verb, and the latter is govered by the verb: for instance, der Vater liebt seinen Sohn, the father loves his son. Here, der Vater is *the Subject,* which governs the verb, that is to say, the verb must agree with it, in number and person;† seinen Sohn, is *the Object,* which is governed by the verb, because it must, in compliance with the nature of the verb, stand

* I make no mention of the article, because it is obvious, that it must always stand before the word, to which it belongs.

† See p. 417, Rule I.

in a particular case.* To give another example: der Mann schreibt einen Brief, the man writes a letter;—der Mann is the subject, and einen Brief the object. These terms must be distinctly recollected, throughout the following pages.

Exceptions to the first Rule.

1. The subject is put after the verb, in a direct question: as, schreibt der Mann, does the man write? Schreibt, the verb—der Mann, the subject. It is the same, when the question begins with an interrogative pronoun, or interrogative adverb: as, was sagt der Vater, what says the father? welches Buch liest der Schüler, which book does the pupil read? warum lacht der Knabe, why does the boy laugh? weswegen weint die Schwester, what does the sister weep for?

2. When, for the purpose of emphasis, the object is placed at the head of a sentence.† For instance: dieses Glück genießt der Tugendhafte, *this happiness* the virtuous man enjoys. Der Tugendhafte, is the subject, which follows after the verb, genießt; because the object, dieses Glück, begins the sentence.

3. When the dative, or accusative case of a person‡ stands first: as, dem Menschen ist das Leben theuer, *to man*

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* See p. 439, Rule IV.

† This emphasis will be father explained afterwards.

‡ These cases of person, as they are called, will be more particularly adverted to.

life is dear; diesen Knaben hat mein Freund die Französische Sprache gelehrt, *this boy* my friend taught the French language. The sentences here begin with a case of person, and the subjects are found after the verb. This, and the preceding exception, may perhaps be together comprehended in these words, that, when any oblique case of declension begins a sentence, the subject must go after the verb.

4. When an adjective, or pronoun, serving for, or belonging to, the object, begins the sentence. Gut ist der Wein zwar, aber auch theuer, the wine, indeed, is *good* but also dear. The adjective gut has, in this instance, the capacity of the object, or, in the words used above, serves for the object, and beginning the sentence, moves the subject, der Wein, from its place. Gut findet mein Vater den Wein, &c. my father finds the wine *good:* here gut belongs to the object, den Wein, and has the same influence upon the subject. This is also to be observed in the pronoun, when it acts as the object: as, mein ist das Haus, *mine* is the house; mein represents the object, and das Haus, which is the subject is put after the verb. Sein nennt der König die Waldung, welche im Süden von England befindlich ist, the king calls the forest his which is in the south of England. Sein serves for the object, and therefore brings the subject after the verb.

5. When the pronoun es begins the sentence: for example, es kömmt der König, the king is coming; es entstand ein Lärm, a tumult arose.*

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* See p. 233, 4. and p. 414, 3.

6. When an infinitive is put at the beginning, either as a member of the sentence,* or for the sake of emphasis: for example, um innere Ruhe zu geniessen, müssen die Pflichten der Religion erfüllt werden, in order to enjoy inward peace, *must the duties* of religion be fulfilled; gehorchen wollen die Leute nicht, obey *will the people* not—for, the duties must, the people will not.

7. The participles, with an adverbial power, to express the manner of acting,† being, or suffering, or participles generally, when placed in the beginning of a sentence, make the subject follow the verb. For instance: Weinend sprach der Vater, *weeping* the father spoke; trauernd gingen die Gefährten zu dem Grabmahle, *mourning* the companions went to the sepulchre. Thus with the preterite participle; geliebt und angebetet verließ der Held seine Mitbürger und eilte in das Schlachtfeld, neue Lorbeeren zu erringen, *beloved and adored*, the hero left his fellow citizens, and hastened into the field of battle to obtain new laurels.

8. The subject must be after the verb, when an adverb, or certain cases of nouns, used in an adverbial signification, or absolute cases,‡ commence the sentence. Bald kömmt der Winter, *soon* winter comes; schnell geht die Zeit dahin, *quickly* time passes. Unglücklicher Weise

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* See Ex. p. 162. n. 6.

† See p. 352, above.

‡ See p. 442

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7. The participles, with an adverbial power, to express the manner of acting,† being, or suffering, or participles generally, when placed in the beginning of a sentence, make the subject follow the verb. For instance: Weinend ſprach der Vater, *weeping* the father spoke; trauernd gingen die Gefährten zu dem Grabmahle, *mourning* the companions went to the sepulchre. Thus with the preterite participle; geliebt und angebetet verließ der Held ſeine Mitbürger und eilte in das Schlachtfeld, neue Lorbeeren zu erringen, *beloved and adored*, the hero left his fellow citizens, and hastened into the field of battle to obtain new laurels.

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‡ See p. 442

traf das Loos seinen Bruder, *unfortunately*, the lot fell upon his brother. Interrogative adverbs, (as warum, why; weswegen, what for, wherefore), having naturally their place in the beginning, cause the subject to stand after the verb.

9. When a preposition, with its case, takes the lead. Mit freudiger Mine gingen die Einwohner ihrem Befreier entgegen, *with a joyful countenance* the inhabitants went to meet their deliverer. When, however, the preposition, with its case, forms an exclamation, it is considered as an interjection, and does not move the subject from its place: as, bey meiner Ehre, der Mensch ist unschuldig, upon my honour, the man is innocent.

10. The following conjunctions have the same effect, in transposing the subject, when they commence the sentence: but they may themselves be placed after the verb. Also, signifying so, thus; da, then; daher, thence, therefore; dann, then, (the same as denn); darauf, thereupon, then; darum, for that reason; demnach, consequently; dann, denn, then; deshalb, deshalben, (derohalben), for that reason; deswegen, on that account; desgleichen, likewise; doch, yet, still, (it does not always affect the situation of the subject); ferner, moreover; folglich, consequently; gleichwohl, nevertheless; indessen, in the meanwhile; imgleichen, or ingleichen, likewise; jetzt, now; kaum, scarce; mithin, consequently; noch, yet, nor; nun, now; theils, partly; so, either meaning *so*, or beginning the subsequent member of a sentence; überdieß, besides; übrigens, in other respects.—When the conjunctions, auch,

also; entweder, either; zwar, indeed, are in the beginning of the sentence, the subject may be put after the verb, by which means a stress falls either upon the subject, or the verb: as, auch rief das Volk, the people even exclaimed: entweder liest der Knabe, oder er schreibt, the boy either reads or writes; zwar scheinet die Sonne, aber, &c. the sun indeed shines, but, &c. When the emphasis is to be on the subject, it should remain before the verb: as, auch das Volk rief, even the people cried out.—In old and formal language, the subject is sometimes placed after the verb, when und, and, or sondern, but, precedes. Und hat Beklagter erwiesen, and the defendant has proved. Here Beklagter, the subject is after the verb, in consequence of und.

11. In quoting, the subject is put after sagen, or any similar verb, when part of the quotation goes before: as, das Glück, sagt der Weise, ist verrätherisch, Fortune, says the wise man, is treacherous.

12. The subject always follows the verb, in the Subsequent member of a sentence.

Note. The *Subsequent member* of a sentence is that, which comes after one beginning with a relative pronoun, (such as was, what), or relative adverb, (such as wo, where), as a conditional, casual, or consecutive conjunction, (such as wenn, if; weil, because; da, when).*

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* See the chapter on Conjunctions, p. 386.

Examples: Was der Vater sagt, thut der Sohn, what the father says, the son does. The first member of this sentence begins with the relative pronoun, was; in the second, or subsequent member, therefore, *the subject*, der Sohn, stands after the verb, thut. Wo das Aas ist, versammeln sich die Adler, where the carrion is, the eagles are collected. Here, the first member commences with the relative adverb wo; and the subject, in the following member, is after the verb.* Wenn das Wetter günstig bleibt, so kömmt mein Freund in wenigen Tagen, *if* the weather continues favourable, my friend comes, (or will come) in a few days. This sentence also consists of two members: *the first*, if the weather continues favourable; *the second*, my friend comes, or will come: in the latter, which is *the subsequent member*, the subject is placed after the verb. Thus, weil die Zeit schnell verstreicht, so benutzt der Weise jeden Augenblick, because time passes quickly, the wise man turns every moment to profit. Here are again two members, *the antecedent*, because the time passes; and *the subsequent*, the wise man turns every moment to profit. The subject in the latter, of course,

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* Strictly speaking, we ought, in the second, here called the subsequent, member, to supply some demonstrative word, corresponding to the relative, in the first; namely das, in reference to the preceding was; and da, in correspondence with wo. See Exercises p. 167 Note 2. The subsequent member may, perhaps, altogether, be said to depend upon connecting words, which are to be understood.

stands after the verb. Da Cäsar sich näherte, entwichen die Feinde, when Cæsar approached (*antecedent*), the enemy withdrew (*subsequent*).—The subsequent member after an antecedent, with a conjunction of the description alluded to, frequently begins with the particle so, concerning which it will be proper to refer to some remarks in Part I.* This particle serves as a connecting link, between the antecedent, and subsequent members.† It is not always made use of, when the prior member begins with a consecutive, or casual conjunction; but rarely omitted after a conditional, such, as, wenn, if; obschon, obgleich, wennschon, wenngleich, though, although. The conjunction wenn, if, is sometimes understood, in the antecedent; and with this circumstance, the subsequent member, generally, takes so, and the subject goes after the verb. For example: wäre der Fluß schiffbar, so würde der Handel blühen, if the river were navigable, trade would flourish. The antecedent member should properly be thus expressed: wenn der Fluß schiffbar wäre.—The conjunction desto, and also je, when equivalent to desto,‡ constitutes a subsequent member.—A subsequent member further arises, when an infinitive begins the sentence,

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* P. 391. and 474.

† It seems, that such a link, between the antecedent and subsequent members, may always be supposed; and that, if it is not expressed, it may be understood, as is intimated in the note, in the foregoing page. The note from the Exercises, p. 167, 2, may again be referred to, and another p. 168, 2, be likewise compared.

‡ See p. 388. See Appendix to the Elements, p. 79.

expressing purpose and design. Um reich zu werden, unterzieht sich der Mensch oft den größten Mühseligkeiten, in order to grow rich, man often undergoes the greatest hardships. The latter, "man undergoes," &c. is the subsequent member, where the subject must be put after the verb.

13. The last instance, in which the verb precedes the subject, is where the conjunction wenn, if, is to be supplied: as, wäre mein Vater hier gewesen, so wäre das Unglück nicht geschehen, had my father been here, the misfortune would not have happened. Wäre mein Vater hier gewesen, stands undoubtedly for, wenn mein Vater hier gewesen wäre, if my father had been here; and the subject, as appears, is behind the verb. So it is in this passage of Gellert's letter: Sind sie ihr Herz und alles schuldig was Sie glücklich macht, so bin ich ihr einen, meiner ersten, meiner geistreichsten Freunde schuldig, if you owe to her (your mother) your heart and every thing that makes you happy, I owe her one of my first, my highly gifted friends." Here wenn, if, is left out, in the beginning of the sentence before sind.

From all the exceptions to the first rule, which have been enumerated, this general conclusion may be drawn, that the position of the *Subject* is affected by the collocation of the other words, in the sentence; and that, when these are moved out of their natural place, the subject loses its original situation.

Rule II. The substantive, being *the Object*, is put after the verb; for example, ich liebe meinen Vater, I love *my father*; meinen Vater is the object.

Exceptions:

1. When stress is to be laid upon the object, it may be placed in the beginning of the sentence: as, den Homer lese ich mit Vergnügen und Bewunderung, *Homer* I read with pleasure and admiration.

2. The verb is sometimes thrown to the end of the sentence;* then the object, naturally comes before it.

Rule III. The Substantive, in the *Genitive* case, not being the object,* generally stands after the word, by which it is governed: as, der Sohn meines Freundes, the son of my friend.

But it is found

1. Before the substantive that governs it, when it bears an emphasis. Des Vaters Segen bauet den Kindern Häuser, aber der Mutter Fluch reißet sie nieder, a father's blessing builds houses for the children, but a mother's curse pulls them down.

2. Before adjectives: as, des Verbrechens schuldig, guilty of the crime; des Lobes würdig, worthy of the praise; der Sorge unwerth, undeserving of the care.

3. Before some prepositions.‡

Rule IV.—The *Dative* has its place after the verb, and if there be an objective case, besides, before the latter.

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* See Sect. IV. of this chapter.

† The genitive may be the object, when it is governed by the verb. See. p. 433. Rule II.

‡ See p. 366-368.

Er gibt dem Manne das Buch, he gives the book to the man. The dative, dem Manne, here stands between the verb, and the object.

When it is to be marked with an emphasis, it should be moved from its place, either before the verb, or after the object. The first is the most effectual: as, dem Manne gibt er das Buch; the second does not so much alter the force of the sentence, er gibt das Buch dem Manne.—If the object be a monosyllable, or short word, and the dative case consist of more syllables, the former should be put first, because a long word finishes the sentence better than a short one; for example, er sagte es dem Vater, he told it to the father—es, is the object, and comes before the dative. It is remarkable, that the object, being a case of a personal, or reciprocal pronoun, is generally put before the dative, though the latter should be of no greater extent, and likewise proceed from one of those pronouns. For example: ich habe es *ihm* gesagt, I have told it him; er hat ihn *mir* gezeigt, he has pointed him out to me; wir empfehlen uns *dir*, we recommend ourselves to thee. The words here printed in Italicks, are dative cases, those immediately before them, in Roman type, the objective accusatives.*

Rule V.—The *Accusative* serves to some verbs as the case of a person, when there is another accusative of the thing or object. The former is then placed in the same

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* Compare Sect. III. of this Chapter: and Exercises, p. 178. note 1.

manner as the dative, according to the preceding rule. Examples: Ich nenne den Mann Freund, I call the man friend; ich heiße einen solchen Mann einen Helden, I call such a man a hero; er lehrt den Sempronius die Rechenkunst, he teaches Sempronius arithmetick.

Should the subject, the object, and the case of person meet together, either before, or after, the verb, they would follow in this order: subject, case of person, object. For example, before the verb: da der König dem Feinde den Frieden angeboten hat, since the king has offered peace to the enemy. After the verb: Auf diese Weise verschaffte Cäsar seinen Freunden Genugthuung und benahm seinen Feinden alle Hoffnung zur Rache, in this manner Cæsar procured satisfaction for his friends, and deprived his enemies of all hope of revenge.

Rule VI. The *Dative* and *Accusative* cases governed by adjectives,* stand before the same.†

Rule VII. The *Vocative* case may be put anywhere, either before, or after, the verb, at the option of the speaker.

SECTION II.

POSITION OF THE NOUN ADJECTIVE.

Rule I. The adjective, being joined with a substantive, precedes the same: as, guter Wein, good wine; das schöne Kind, the pretty child.

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* See p. 409. R. III. 2. and p. 410. 3.

† Compare Sect. II. Rule IV.

Sometimes, it is placed after the substantive, by way of apposition, serving for a relative sentence: as, der Minister, nicht weniger gerecht, als staatsklug, that alles, um diesem Ereignisse vorzubeugen, the minister, not less just than politick, did every thing to obviate this event. Here the adjectives, being put after the substantive, occupy the place of a relative sentence: welcher nicht weniger gerecht als staatsklug war, who was not less just than politick.

Rule II.—When the adjective is not united with a substantive (nor turned into a substantive itself—for thus it would have all the rights of the latter), it is considered as the object, and put after the verb: as, der Mann ist gut; or before it, with an emphasis, gut ist der Mann.

Rule III.—The Numerals rank before other adjectives, preceding a substantive: as, drey gute, ehrliche Menschen, three good honest men.

When cardinal and ordinal numbers meet before a substantive, it seems indifferent, which is put first: whether, for instance it be, die drey ersten, the three first; or, die ersten drey, the first three. This applies also to the words, die andern, the others, and die letzten, the last, which may either be put before, or after, the cardinals. Perhaps adjectives of a superlative signification may be, generally, included in this observation. Examples, die drey letzten, or, die letzten drey, the three last; die vier andern, or, die andern vier, the other four; die sechs besten, or, die besten sechs, the six best; die zehn schönsten, or die schönsten zehn, the ten finest. It is to be noticed, that the emphasis, in these instances, falls upon the word, which is put last.—The

words alle, all; manche, several; viele, many; jeder, each, stand before the numerals, and the adjectives.

Rule IV. Adjectives usually follow the cases they govern: as, dieser Ehre würdig, worthy of this honour; des Verbrechens schuldig, guilty of the crime; dem Vater ähnlich, like the father; zehn Ellen lang, ten yards long: drey Fuß breit, three feet broad; sechs Pfund schwer, weighing six pounds. They are likewise, frequently, put after, when they are connected with nouns that are governed by prepositions: as, es ist zur Unterhaltung sehr nützlich, it is very useful for entertainment; die Gesundheit ist zur Glückseligkeit unentbehrlich, health is indispensably necessary to happiness.

SECTION III.

POSITION OF THE PRONOUN.

Rule. The *Pronoun* either stands in the room of a substantive, or is connected with it, in the character of an adjective: and has, accordingly, either the position of the one or the other.

Therefore, when used substantively, it may serve as the subject, and as the object, in a sentence, the collocation of which is seen in the first section. The personal pronoun never occurs otherwise, than as substantives: and the demonstratives *occasionally* assume that quality. When the latter are employed as adjectives, they occupy the place of the article, and go before any other word, that may be joined with the substantive: as, diese drey

guten Leute, these three good people; jene vier ersten tapfern Männer, those four first brave men. The word All, however, may precede them.

The personal pronoun, in the accusative, or objective case, is commonly put before the dative: as, er gibt es mir, he gives it to me—es, the objective case, before the dative mir. Schicke sie ihm, send them to him—sie, them, preceeding ihm, to him.* The dative is found before the object: as, Gib mir es, but not so frequently as after it, and then it is often contracted,† as, mir es, into mirs, dir es, into dirs, euch es, into euchs, (not so properly, ihms, ihrs, for ihm es, ihr es.

Farther, the personal pronoun, in the dative, or accusative, is sometimes placed before the subject, when the verb is at the end of the sentence. Wenn mir das Glück günstig ist, if fortune is propitious to me; weil dich dein Vater liebt, because thy father loves thee. The truth is, that the small personal pronouns are put as early, in a sentence, as may be, I suppose, from a fear of their making too faint an impression, if removed to any distance from the beginning.

The relative pronoun finds its place, naturally, at the beginning of that part of the sentence, to which it belongs. The word All, may, sometimes, stand before it.

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* Sect. I. R. IV.

† See page 476.

SECTION IV.

POSITION OF THE VERB.

Rule I.—The Indicative Mood stands after the subject, and before the object.

Except:

1. In instances, when the subject is placed after, and the object before it, which are mentioned in the first section.

2. When the verb must be at the end, that is to say, not only after the subject, but also after the object, and all words connected with the same. This is necessary:

(1) When the member of the sentence, to which the verb belongs, commences with a relative pronoun, as, der, welcher, wer, was; or a relative adverb, as, daher, from whence; darum, for what; warum, weshalb, or weshalben, weswegen, for which reason, for what, wherefore*; von wannen, from whence; wo, where; and the compounds of wo, as, wovon, woher, womit, woraus, &c. Examples: der Schriftsteller ist zu schätzen, *welcher* die Beförderung der Tugend zum Zwecke *hat*—that writer, is to be esteemed, who has the promotion of virtue for his object. Ich

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* The relative signification of these words must be distinguished from the other meanings which they bear, either as adverbs, or conjunctions. Daher, thence, therefore; darum, for that reason, therefore; warum, weswegen, why, for what reason—cause the subject to be placed after the verb.

kenne einen Mann, *der* sich mit Recht meinen Freund *nennt*. I know a man who justly calls himself my friend. *Wer* dem Laster und dessen Reitzen *folgt*, bereitet sich eine schmerzliche Reue, he who follows vice, and its charms, prepares to himself a painful repentance. The verb, in the foregoing examples, is at the end of that member of the sentence, to which the relative pronouns, der, welcher, wer, belong. It is thus with the adverbs alluded to: for instance: der Ort, *wo* ich heute meinen Freund *sah*—the place where to-day I saw my friend. *Wohin* man das Auge nur *wendet*, erblickt man nichts als Elend, wherever one turns one's eye, one perceives nothing but misery: The verb sah, and wendet, are put last, in consequence of wo, and wohin.

(2) The verb goes to the end, after interrogatives, (whether pronouns, adverbs, or conjunctions), when they form indirect questions. Examples: Er frägt mich *wer* diesen Morgen bey Ihnen *war*—he asks me, who was with you this morning; wissen Sie, *welches* Buch er heute in dem Garten *las*—do you know what book he read to-day in the garden? sagen Sie mir, *was für einen* Grund er über sein Ausbleiben *angibt*—tell me, what ground he alleges for his staying out. Wer, welcher, was für ein, interrogative pronouns, serve here to indirect questions,*

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* It is probably understood by every reader, what is meant by *indirect* questions: but there will remain no doubt, if we change some of the foregoing into *direct* questions, to show the difference, viz. wer war bey Ihnen, who was with you? welches Buch las er, what book did he read?

and the verb stands last. Ich kann nicht sagen, *wie* es sich zugetragen *hat*—I cannot tell how it has happened; ich möchte wissen, *ob* viele Leute bey jetziger heißer Witterung auf dem Felde seyn *werden*—I should like to know, whether during the present hot weather, many people will be in the field. Wie, and ob, constitute indirect questions, and the verb is at the end.

(3) After conjunctions, conditional, casual, and consecutive. They are: Als, bevor, bis, da, dafern, damit (in order that; daß, auf daß (in order that); ehe, falls, im Falle (in case that); gleichwie, indem, immaßen, since, because (old); nachdem; nun, (when it signifies, since,) after—nun es einmal geschehen ist, since it once has been done); ob, obschon, obgleich, obwohl, seit, and seitdem; sintemal since, whereas (old); so (when it means, if); so bald, or so bald als; so lange, or so lange als; so weit, or so weit als; während, während daß, while; weil, wenn, wenngleich, wennschon; wie, wiewohl, wofern, wo nicht. To these is to be added the comparative conjunction je, which, beginning the prior member, moves the verb to the end.* Example: *als* er den Aufruhr in der Stadt *bemerkte*—when he perceived the tumult in the city; *bevor* ich den Wald erreicht *hatte*—before I had reached the wood; *bis* die Sonne die erstarrten Felder auflösen *wird*—till the sun shall loosen the congealed fields; *da* der König in London *ankam*—when the king arrived in London: *je*

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* See p. 318. Compare the Exercises, p. 87. n. 1. and p. 189. n. 3.

länger der Künstler diese Gegenstände *betrachtete*, desto mehr bewunderte er sie, the more the artist contemplated these objects the more he admired them.

By the force of the aforesaid conjunctions, the verb is put after ever word, belonging to the same member of the sentence, and sometimes even after a subordinate member, connected with it. For example: da ich den Mann, welcher so edel gedacht, ehre, und liebe, since I honour and love the man, who has thought so nobly. In this, the principal member is, da ich den Mann ehre und liebe, with which is connected a subordinate, or secondary, member, welcher so edel gedacht, and the verb of the former is placed after this. It need not necessarily be so; but the sentence might also run thus: da ich den Mann ehre und liebe, welcher so edel gedacht. It depends upon sound, and perspicuity, to prefer either the one, or the other. This likewise applies to the infinitive, with the preposition zu. The verb, influenced by the above conjunctions, may be put after the infinitive: as, weil ich mich nicht zu zanken wünsche, because I do not like to quarrel—or before it, weil ich nicht wünsche, mich zu zanken. When the infinitive, with zu, has other words belonging to it, for instance, cases of declension which it governs, it is preferable, on account of the extent, which it then assumes, to place it in a distinct comma, after the verb, lest the sentence should become heavy, and intricate.* Being without the preposition, zu, it is immediately governed by the verb, as much as a case of declension; and the verb, must under those circumstances, stand after it;

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* See Exerc. p. 186. n. 7.

as, wenn er das Buch lesen will, if he will read that book; where it would be wrong to let the infinitive follow after the verb, as, wenn er will das Buch lesen.

The conjunctions daß, and wenn, are occasionally understood, without being expressed.* Being thus absent from the sentence, they forfeit their power of moving the verb to the end.

Rule II.—The Subjunctive Mood, is, in the arrangement of words, under the same regulations, as the indicative. When it denotes a wish, or surprise, it often begins the sentence: as, gebe es der Himmel, may heaven grant it! möchte die Sonne doch scheinen! oh, that the sun would shine! hätte ichs doch nicht geglaubt, I should not have thought it! Always, when the conditional conjunction, wenn, if, is omitted: wäre ich hier gewesen, had I been here; for, wenn ich hier gewesen wäre, if I had been here.

Rule III.—The Imperative precedes the personal pronouns, that serve to it as subjects. Lobe du, praise thou; lobe er, let him praise; loben sie, let them praise.

Rule IV.—The Infinitive comes after the object, and the other words of a sentence, except the indicative, and subjunctive, when these, for reasons assigned before, are put last. Examples: er wünscht die Lateinische Sprache

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* See Gr. p. 425, and p. 474.

gründlich zu *lernen*—he wishes to learn the Latin language accurately.: dieser Mann kann Englisch, Französisch, Deutsch, und verschiedene andere Sprachen von Europa *reden*,—this man can speak English, French, German, and several other tongues of Europe. Lernen and reden, are infinitives.

This rule affects the future tenses, because they are composed of an infinitive, and the third auxiliary. That infinitive, namely, is placed in the same manner, as in the examples above stated, that is to say, after the object, and other words: as, ich *werde* morgen die Gegend *besehen*—I shall to-morrow take a view of the country. Besehen is the infinitive, belonging to the auxiliary werde, with which it constitutes the future tense; but this connexion does not alter its position, in the sentence.—When the future, in the indicative, or subjunctive mood, is obliged to go to the end, on account of some preceding word, which requires that collocation, the infinitive, which composes the future, must be put before the auxiliary: as, man glaubt, daß der Kaiser mit den Franzosen Frieden machen werde, it is thought that the Emperour will make peace with the French. Here the infinitive machen, is before the auxiliary werde. When the future tense of the passive voice stands in that predicament, the auxiliary verb, in the indicative, or subjunctive, is often put before the infinitive, which is done to prevent, by means of the intervening participle, the close reiteration of werden: for example, ich erwarte, daß verschiedene Sachen nach unserm Hause *werden* gebracht *werden*—I expect, that several things will be brought to our house. Another

expedient I have seen used by modern writers,* that of substituting the infinitive, of the second auxiliary, ſeyn, for werden. But this is taking an improper liberty with the language by forcing upon it a foreign idiom: for, the auxiliary, belonging to the passive voice, in German, is not ſeyn, but werden.

Sometimes, two infinitives stand together, of which one governs the other; then the governing one should be put after that, which is governed: as, er wollte ſie nicht herein kommen laſſen, he would not let them come in. Here, laſſen, the governing infinitive is preceded by the other, herein kommen, which is governed. But this rule is not always observed, as the following example proves: er hat ihn ſchon mehr als zehnmal müſſen hören,† he has been obliged more than ten times to hear him—which should be, hören müſſen.

The infinitive is found, now and then, at the very beginning of a sentence, and in that position bears a strong emphasis: as kommen will ich zwar, *come*, indeed, I will; aber ſchreiben darf ich nicht, but *write* I must not.

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* Lafontaine, in his Kleine Romane, vol. i. has this passage: aber dennoch weiß ich, daß ich verachtet und gehaßt ſeyn werde. It may, however, be said, that in this instance, the participles verachtet and gehaßt, are used as mere adjectives, (see Gr. p. 353); then the observation, in the text, would not apply.

† From Leſſing's Miſogyn, p. 279. In the Dutch language, in which the same position of words prevails, as in German, that governing infinitive is constantly put *before* that which is governed.

The infinitive may be employed, in a substantive capacity,* as the subject, or object: and is, then, placed according to these qualifications.

Rule V.—The verbs compound separable must here be noticed. The particle is separated from the verb, when this is not at the end, and placed after the object, and other words,† including even a relative, or intermediate member of the sentence. Ich nehme Ihr Geschenk mit Dankbarkeit an, I receive your present with gratitude; verb annehmen, to receive—the particle an, at the end. Sie kamen in Ansehung dieser Sache bald überein they soon agreed with respect to this matter; verb übereinkommen. Nehmen Sie das Buch mit, take the book with you; verb mitnehmen. When the verb, in consequence of a pronoun, or a conjunction, is brought to the end of the sentence, the particle is not divided from it: as, da ich Ihr Geschenk mit Dankbarkeit annehme, as I receive your present with gratitude. The verb annehme stands last, on account of the conjunction da, and remains, for this reason, united with the particle.—The infinitive mood, and preterite participle have their places after the object, and at, or near, the end of the sentence; therefore, the particle is not separated, except by zu, in the infinitive, and by ge, in the preterite participle: as, mitzunehmen, mitgenommen. Zu, however, does not always accompany the infinitive. From what has been said, it appears, that the separation principally occurs in the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative moods.

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* See p. 467. † Refer to p. 334. II. 2.

SECTION V.

POSITION OF THE PARTICIPLE.

Rule I.—When the participle, either present, or preterite, is used as an adjective, it has the privileges of the same, in the position of words.

Rule II.—The present participle is always preceded by the case it governs: as, die alles belebende Sonne, the sun animating every thing; die Fleisch fressenden Thiere, the animals that live upon flesh.*

Rule III.—The preterite participle is, commonly, put after the words, with which it is connected: as, das Buch, von dem Vater geschrieben, the book written by the father.

Rule IV.—When combined with the auxiliary verbs, it has its station after the object, and other words; and is, therefore, generally, found towards the end of the sentence. Er ist in London gewesen, he has been in London —ist gewesen, the participle gewesen at the end. Ich habe heute das Buch gelesen, I have read the book to-day—habe gelesen. Er wird mit Recht ein großer Mann genannt, he is justly called a great man. If the auxiliary, by the power of some pronoun, or conjunction, be removed to the end, the preterite participle stands before it: as, die Thaten, welche von dem Dichter geschildert werden, the deeds that are depicted by the poet. The auxiliary, werden, at the end, because of the pronoun welche; the participle, geschildert,

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* See p. 352.

before it. Ich weiß es, weil ich den Mann selbst gesehen habe, I know it, because I have seen the man myself. Weil, conjunction, brings the verb habe to the end, and the participle, gesehen, precedes it.—When the preterite participle, and the infinitive of an auxiliary verb come together, the participle is placed before the infinitive: as, gelesen haben, to have read; geliebt werden, to be loved. Should it so happen, that the participle, infinitive and verb definite, that is to say, either the indicative, or subjunctive, meet together at the end of a sentence, the arrangement may either be thus, participle, infinitive, indicative or subjunctive, nachdem ich das Buch gelesen haben werde, after I shall have read the book; or the verb definite, may be put before the participle, and infinitive, nachdem ich das Buch werde gelesen haben. I think, it may be left to the judgment of every individual, which of these two ways should, upon different occasions, have the preference.

SECTION VI.

POSITION OF THE ADVERB.

Rule I.—An adverb, joined to an adjective, must always remain before it: as, sehr gut, very good; nicht schlecht, not bad.

Rule II.—When the adverb belongs to the verb, whose action it defines, and modifies, it is put after the verb,*

* See Exercises, p. 198. note 4.

and, in general, also after the object. Er behandelt den Gegenstand vortrefflich, he treats the subject excellently; vortrefflich is the adverb. Such adverbs, however, as denote time, for example, *often*, *frequently*, *to-day*, *yesterday*, and the like, are best stationed immediately after the verb, and before the object.*

The verb being at the end of the sentence, the adverb, as well as the other words, must naturally stand before it. Nor can the adverb, with propriety, be placed after the infinitive, or preterite participle. Moreover, unless the verb be at the end, the adverb cannot be suffered between the subject and the verb.

Rule III.—The adverb, being moved from its place, towards the beginning of the sentence, generally receives an emphasis: as, ich habe heute das Buch gelesen, I have to-day read the book; which makes the notion of heute, to-day, more perceptible than, ich habe das Buch heute gelesen. This seems to be the reason why adverbs, implying time, are, as has just been observed, commonly placed before the object: namely, they are thus rendered more distinct. But to make the emphasis so evident, that it cannot be mistaken, the adverb should be put quite at the beginning. Heute habe ich den König gesehen, to-day I have seen the king. In this remark are not included the interrogative adverbs, such as, wie, how; wenn, when; warum, why; weswegen, what for; wo, where; which, as they can be placed no where but in

* Compare Exerc. p. 199. n. 1.

the beginning, derive no particular distinction from position.

There are adverbs that in no place seem to be ceptible of an emphasis, viz. those which express ch probability, and similar vague, and undefined, id vielleicht, perhaps; vermuthlich, probably; wahrschei very likely, and others. As no difference arises, i purport of the sentence, from their situation, they be put any where, even between the subject nomin and the verb, where no other adverb is permitted to s Dieser Mann vielleicht wird es wissen, this man, per will know it; sein Bruder vermuthlich hat ihm da schrieben, his brother, probably, has written that to If they have any effect, when thus transposed, it be that they rather give force to the subject.

The negative, Nicht, not, has its station commonly the object: as, der Mann thut seine Pflicht nicht, the does not do his duty. Here the action of the verb is companied by the negative. If it is to be particul referred to the subject, or object, or any other wor must be put before such word. Nicht Reichthum, son Zufriedenheit macht die Menschen glücklich, not riches contentment makes men happy. In this instance, the gative is applied to the subject, and stands before Laßt uns nicht den Verlust des Schiffes, sondern den so vieler trefflicher Seeleute beklagen, do not let us lan the loss of the ship, but the death of so many fine men. The negative before the object.

SECTION VII.

POSITION OF THE PREPOSITION.

Rule I.—The preposition always continues with its case and is, usually, prefixed to it.

Halben, halber, entgegen, zuwider, are constantly put after their cases. Durch, nach, gegenüber, ungeachtet, wegen, zu, zufolge, zuwider, sometimes before, and sometimes after. See the Prepositions in the First Part.

Rule II.—The preposition, together with its case, may be looked upon, in the position of words, as an adverb: accordingly, its place will be after the object. Ich habe einen Brief aus Deutschland erhalten, I have received a letter from Germany. In Luther's translation of the Bible, and in other old writings, the preposition, with its case, is frequently, if not commonly, found after the verb, at the end of the sentence, as in this example, ich habe einen Brief erhalten aus Deutschland. This practice, which had justly been corrected, by giving to the preposition the same rank with the adverb, upon grammatical principles, has of late been revived: and adopted by those, who were not aware of the ground, on which it had been altered.*

Rule III.—From thence it may be transferred, before the object, for the purpose of emphasis: Ich habe aus Deutschland einen Brief erhalten—here the words, aus

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* Refer to the Exercises, p. 200, note, 6.

Deutschland, acquire energy from their position. But the stress is most forcible, when the preposition is placed in front of the sentence: Aus Deutschland habe ich einen Brief erhalten, *from Germany* I have received a letter.

Rule IV.—It cannot be inserted between the subject and the verb, unless it solely belongs to the former: as, der Mann mit dem blauen Rocke hat es gethan, the man with the blue coat (that is, wearing a blue coat) has done it. Jener mit dem Degen hat den Mord begangen, that one with the sword, (that is, he who has the sword), has committed the murder. It is not said, that the first has done it with the blue coat, or that the second has committed the murder with the sword: this would be a false construction. But, from the collocation of the words, it is to be understood, that the one, who wears a blue coat, is charged with a certain deed, and the other, who has a sword, has committed a murder. Therefore, if the preposition, with its case, is not exclusively referred to the subject, it cannot be put, where we see it, in the examples adduced.

Rule V.—If both adverb, and preposition meet in the same member of a sentence, the adverb should come before the preposition, especially, when the former consists only of one, or two syllables: for example, er schreibt gut mit dieser Feder, he writes well with this pen: wir gehen heute auf die Jagd, we go a hunting to-day: sie reiseten eilig durch London, they passed hastily through London: er wird morgen zu mir kommen, he will come to me to-morrow. The adverbs gut, heute, eilig, morgen, here stand before the preposition.

SECTION VIII.

POSITION OF THE CONJUNCTION.

Rule I.—The conjunction is, in general, placed at the beginning, and before the subject.

Rule II.—Some conjunctions force the verb to the end of the sentence, as has been stated in the fourth section.* They are: als, bevor, bis, da, dafern, damit, auf daß, ehe, falls, gleichwie, indem, im Falle, je, nachdem, nun, ob, obschon, obgleich, obwohl, seit, seitdem, sintemal, so, so bald, so bald als, so lange, so lange als, so weit, so weit als, während, während das, weil, wenn, wenn gleich, wenn schon, wie, wiefern, in wiefern, wiewohl, wofern, wonicht.

Rule III.—Others when at the beginning, make the subject go behind the verb. They are: da, then; daher, therefore; dann, darauf, darum, for that reason; demnach, dennoch, jedoch, jedennoch, jetzt, folglich, hingegen, indessen, imgleichen, or ingleichen, kaum, mithin, noch, nun, so, überdieß, übrigens. Da kam der Mann, then came the man; mithin, irrt sich dein Bruder, consequently your brother mistakes. Excepting da, and mithin, all the rest may likewise be put after the verb: as, der Mann glaubt daher, the man thinks, therefore; ich zweifle jedoch, I, however, doubt. Ferner, folglich, hingegen, indessen, ingleichen, überdieß, übrigens, may even stand between the subject and the verb: der

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* See p. 501.

Verfasser ferner behauptet, the author, moreover, maintains. Also, doch, entweder, weder, zwar, are to be added to the foregoing; for when they begin a sentence, they may, like these, bring the subject after the verb, though it is not necessary.* It is right to say, also der Bruder hat geschrieben, and, also hat der Bruder geschrieben. Likewise thus: der Bruder hat also geschrieben, and der Bruder also hat geschrieben. By this transposition, the stress of the sentence may be varied, which is no small advantage in composition. The word nämlich, namely, which should be considered as a conjunction, may be included among those last mentioned: but, when at the beginning of a sentence, it never has the power of moving the subject after the verb.

Rule IV.—The conjunctions, Aber, but, and Auch, also, may stand any where in the sentence.† At the beginning, aber mein Bruder weigert sich, but my brother declines it. After another conjunction, da aber mein Bruder sich weigert. After an adverb, nun aber befiehlt es der König, but now the King commands it; or after a preposition with its case, mit diesen Leuten aber kann ich nichts anfangen, but with these people I can do nothing. And it makes no alteration in the influence of other words, upon the constitution of the sentence. Those, for instance, which move the subject after the verb retain the same qualification, though aber be inserted after them; as appears from the preceding examples. It may

* See p. 488.

† Auch, is mentioned, p. 488, 10.

farther be placed after the subject, die Franzosen aber haben den Engländern den Krieg erklärt. After the object, die Franzosen haben den Engländern den Krieg aber erklärt. When not in the beginning, it commonly gives energy to the word that precedes it. The personal pronouns are, generally, put before it, when the verb has quitted its original place; as, da er aber nicht kömmt, but since he does not come; das wünschen wir aber nicht, but this we do not wish; das Geld verlange ich aber, but the money I demand.—What has been remarked of aber, may, almost entirely, be applied to auch; though, perhaps, if we speak cautiously, we should say, that auch has nearly, but not quite the same licence of position. It is, moreover, possessed of the power, when placed at the beginning of a sentence, of bringing the subject after the verb, which power aber has not.

SECTION IX.

POSITION OF THE INTERJECTION.

The position of the interjection is arbitrary; it may be placed wherever it presents itself, according to the feeling, and impulse of the speaker, or writer.*

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* See Exercises, p. 209, n. 1

THE END.

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